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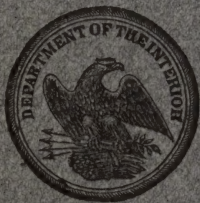
THE AUXILIARY SCHOOLS OF GERMANY

SIX LECTURES BY B. MAENNEL

Rector of Mittelschule in Halle a. d. Saale

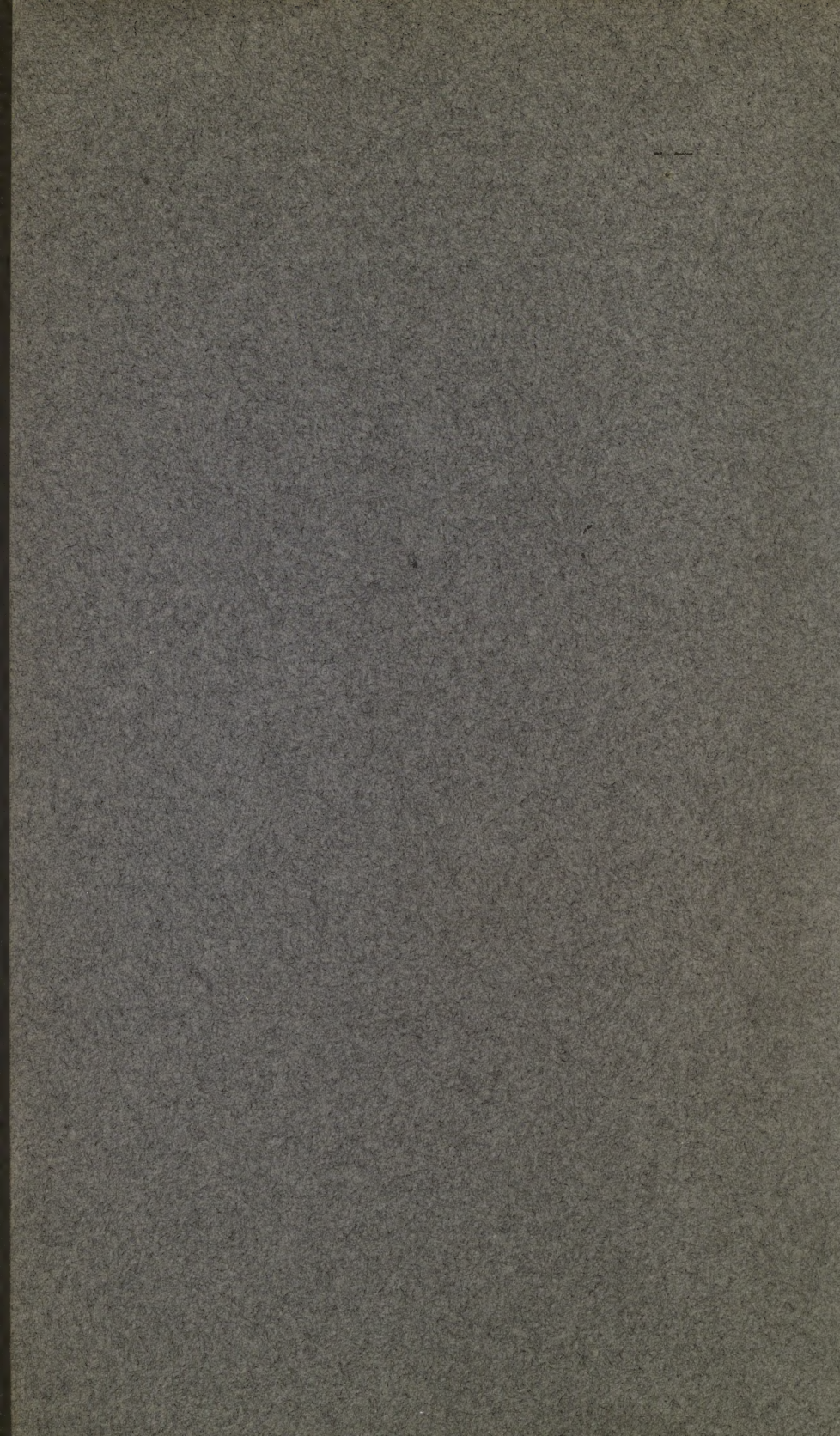
TRANSLATED BY FLETCHER BASCOM DRESSLAR

Associate Professor of the Science and Art of Teaching
in the University of California



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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, October 12, 1907.

SIR: I have the honor to transmit herewith a translation, prepared at my request by Professor Dresslar, of the University of California, of a recent account of the auxiliary schools (Hilfsschulen) of Germany, and to recommend its publication as an issue of the Bulletin of the Bureau of Education.

The problem of proper provision for exceptional children, and especially for backward children, in our great city systems of schools, has long been recognized as one of great importance. It has to do not only with the welfare of the children immediately concerned, but with that of all other children in the same schools; for the necessity of devoting extraordinary care and attention to a few backward members of the class not infrequently prevents the teacher from giving due care and attention to the larger number of normally endowed members. For both reasons, our city school authorities within the past few years have devoted much attention to ungraded classes and other special provision for these exceptional children.

It is believed that an account of a parallel movement in Germany, where it has had a longer history and has reached a more advanced organization, will be of use to those who are furthering this movement in America. No one will suppose that German experience may be fitted without modification into an American situation. Our people welcome educational suggestions from abroad as they welcome desirable immigrants. They recognize them as capable of naturalization, with something good to offer that we did not have before. In the second or third generation, if not earlier, these newcomers become American through and through. Having a vigorous native stock to begin with, we can exercise such hospitality with all freedom, and in it lies the hope of a great enrichment of our national life.

The lectures of Doctor Maennel here presented in free translation, together with his bibliographies, constitute the best account which I have yet seen of this phase of German education, and as such I believe the publication will be widely useful in this country.

Very respectfully,

ELMER ELLSWORTH BROWN,
Commissioner.

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.



NOTE BY TRANSLATOR.

The translation of "Vom Hilfsschulwesen" ^a here presented is not a strictly literal one; but it is hoped that the essential facts and arguments have suffered no serious distortion nor inadequate expression. There are doubtless errors, but some are almost unavoidable by reason of the involved style of the author and the nature of the subject-matter under consideration.

Special mention is due Miss Ida E. Hawes, M. A., reader in the department of education of the University of California, for much critical and willing help in making the translation. I have profited also by the criticism of my colleagues, Prof. Alexis F. Lange, of the Department of Education, and Clarence Paschall, M. A., instructor in the department of German, and by that of Dr. Louis R. Klemm and Mr. F. E. Upton, of the U. S. Bureau of Education.

F. B. DRESSLAR.

BERKELEY, CAL., *January 24, 1907.*

^a The original work is entitled "Vom Hilfsschulwesen: Sechs Vorträge von Dr. B. Maennel, Rektor. Druck und Verlag von B. G. Teubner in Leipzig, 1905." 140 p. D. cloth. It forms the 73d volume of the series, "Aus Natur und Geisteswelt: Sammlung wissenschaftlich-gemeinverständlicher Darstellungen." The work is dedicated to W. Rein, Ph. D., Litt. D., professor of pedagogy in the University of Jena.

AUTHOR'S PREFACE.

These lectures on auxiliary schools were delivered from the 4th to the 10th of August, 1904, in the Ernst Abbe Volkshaus at Jena, as one of the vacation courses given there. Upon invitation of the publishers, they are here presented to the public in an expanded form.

May they serve to convince the reader that a due estimation of those children whom an unfortunate destiny has treated in a stepmotherly fashion in various ways, is not only needful for the friend of new methods in the theory and practice of child study and education, but also for all those who ought to stand for the welfare of the people.

If the new helpers in counsel and action among school people, physicians, ministers, jurists, and all friends of the people, are won over for the good cause, the following work will have served its purpose.

B. MAENNEL.

HALLE, *April, 1905.*

THE AUXILIARY SCHOOLS OF GERMANY.

I.—HISTORICAL SKETCH.

The beginnings of auxiliary schools for defective children date from the middle of the past century. These beginnings were not called auxiliary schools, but auxiliary or assisting classes. The first auxiliary class was established at Halle, in Prussian Saxony. In the minutes of the meeting of the school board, held on the 28th and 29th of September, 1859, is found the following proposal of Mr. Haupt, then principal of one of the schools: * * * "to form a special class for defective children, now numbering 17, with possibly two hours for instruction" * * *. This proposal the city school administration carried into effect, directing a teacher from a folk school to give instruction for two hours daily to those children who from any cause were not making progress in the folk school. Quite a period of time passed by, however, before this new plan of instruction obtained daily in a single room for a class made up of children from the schools for the poor and from the folk schools, and finally included twenty hours of work per week. Still, the credit of founding the first auxiliary class is to be conceded to Principal Haupt, who died in 1904, after long and effective service as privy councillor and school superintendent at Merseburg.^a

Meanwhile there was given to the project at Halle, which had been undertaken offhand and with only practical ends in view, a theoretical and more general foundation. K. F. Kern delivered in 1863 before the pedagogical society of Leipzig his lecture on the education and care of defective children, in which he set forth as generally desirable the establishment of special schools for such children of the folk schools as could not keep pace with other children. Th. Stötzner published in 1864 the first pamphlet bearing on auxiliary schools, giving it the title: "On schools for children of deficient capacity. First draft of a plan for the establishment of the same." This little book of 43 pages contained, in the first and theoretical part, an urgent appeal to all school authorities of the larger cities to establish auxiliary schools, through which deficient children, who for the most part later become burdensome to the community, may be developed into

^a Chemnitz followed with the establishment of her first auxiliary class in 1860.

useful citizens through suitable teachers and properly adapted instruction. Stötzner established, in cooperation with Kern, in 1865, on the occasion of the meeting of the general German teachers' association at Leipzig, a section for pedagogical hygiene, and also in the same year founded a short-lived society for the advancement of the education of mentally deficient children, with Hanover as a meeting place.

It is noteworthy, however, that these Kern-Stötzner suggestions and appeals became effective in Dresden before they did in Leipzig. In the year 1867 the school board of Dresden brought about the establishment of an auxiliary class for 16 mentally deficient children. During the seventies Gera and Elberfeld established their special classes, while Brunswick and Leipzig first instituted similar school organizations in 1881. In the ensuing rivalry of other municipal governments not to be behindhand in organizing separate auxiliary classes or entire auxiliary schools, the capital city of the Empire took no part. While entire municipal congresses, as, for example, that of Thuringia, held at Ilmenau in 1893, earnestly recommended the organization of special auxiliary classes for mentally deficient children, the school board at Berlin declined to maintain auxiliary schools. As appears from two expositions which the *Zeitschrift für Schulgesundheitspflege* published in 1900 and 1901, and according to the statements of P. v. Gizycki, of Berlin, in 1903, the establishment of auxiliary schools was avoided, and instead auxiliary classes were organized in 1898 for the weak ones among the pupils of the common schools. To these classes those children of the common schools are assigned who can not on account of mental or bodily deficiency take part with success in the regular programme of instruction. The instruction in the special classes is designed to so advance the children that they may either become qualified for regular school work or acquire whatever preparation they are capable of for the needs of later life.

Why they could not make up their minds to establish independent auxiliary schools is made clear by the official report of the Berlin city authorities for the year 1898-99, which contains the following: "A considerable number of cities have sought to attain this philanthropic object by the establishment of special schools (auxiliary schools). We have not undertaken this for two reasons: In the first place, the distances to school would become too great; but in the second place, the definitive assignment of children to such a school would place upon them the stamp of inferiority for all time, and often prematurely. We follow the plan of retaining the child as a pupil in his own district, of placing him for instruction in small classes, and of bringing him back into association with the other children as soon as possible. While we now begin special instruction

with the children of the lowest classes, our plan is, step by step and according to the quality of the pupils, to add to the lowest auxiliary class a higher one, and so on, but always with the purpose of replacing the special instruction as soon as possible by the regular." No class of this kind contains more than 12 children, and the number of periods of instruction amounts to 12 per week. Commonly there are put into the special classes only such children as have attended the school of the district for a period of two years without progress. The fixed purpose of the school management of Berlin, i. e., the return of the children from special instruction back to the regular schools, has seldom been accomplished. Thus in the year 1903, out of the 91 special classes with 755 boys and 547 girls, only 36 boys and 29 girls were returned to the regular schools; in consequence of this, practical needs alone necessitated the development of the system of special classes on the plan of the organized auxiliary schools of other German cities. Several special classes were concentrated with that object in view and organized into grades, so that already in the year 1903, according to the statements of P. v. Gizycki, all the 91 special classes were distributed among 41 schools, and it is to be hoped that Berlin will proceed further in this organization, thus abandoning a position which hitherto no other city has thought worthy of imitation.

It is of note also that the royal Prussian educational department has not considered the above-described Berlin educational organization as worthy of recommendation. This central authority has, on the contrary, put the stamp of its approval on that which has been built up at Halle and in many other German cities. Indeed, with particular sympathy for and regardful appreciation of what had been done, it formulated regulations giving shape to the system of auxiliary schools in Prussia, after it had realized how valuable and essential a development of these new schools is to the state. "Das Zentralblatt für die gesamte Unterrichtsverwaltung in Preussen" furnishes gratifying information concerning this movement. In the first place, a circular of the minister, under date of the 27th of October, 1892, criticised the arrangement in vogue, especially in cities with great systems of folk schools, of so-called "finishing classes" for those children who, from any cause, were not able to reach the standard of the folk schools. Next, on the 14th of November, 1892, an investigation was made of such classes of this kind as had already been established in the different provinces for children of school age not normally endowed. The publication of the results of this investigation was accompanied on June 16, 1894, by an ordinance establishing briefly nearly all those points needed in the further development of auxiliary schools. The minister already discriminates in this between those children neglected at home and those deficient in natural endowment. Only such

of the latter as, "during one or two years of attendance on the folk school, have shown that, while they are capable of instruction, they are not sufficiently endowed to work in cooperation with normal children, are particularly indicated as needing special educational provision. The cooperation of the physician in the assignment of children who should be so provided for is of special importance, inasmuch as physical deformities and former illnesses go hand in hand with backward mental development. Besides, the records of the development of individual children, such as have been repeatedly made with discriminating carefulness, are of great value." Moreover, it was further suggested that in many of the larger cities means are now supplied to the end that not more than 25 pupils need be put into one class, and by means of proper salaries, in addition to the regular budget, excellent teachers of both sexes from the folk schools can be secured for the work in the auxiliary classes. The latter designation, viz, auxiliary classes (*Hilfsklassen*), for subnormally endowed children, "seems to be regarded as the most suitable, in view of the feelings of the parents concerned, and to be the one most often used." Finally, the minister recommends that instruction be given these classes for half an hour, that the standard of attainment be set considerably lower for all such classes than for the corresponding classes in the folk school, indeed, that the prescribed work for the highest auxiliary class should not be more difficult than that for the middle class of the regular folk school, and that special consideration be given to such subjects as will develop bodily dexterity and practical skill.

The decree of the Prussian minister of April 6, 1901, supplies again a detailed account of the then-existing school provision for subnormally endowed children of school age. It was a cause of satisfaction to him to know that at that time, in 42 cities of the monarchy, there were 91 such schools, enrolling 4,728 children in 233 classes. In respect to the question concerning the auxiliary school physician, the following declaration is made: "The cooperation of the physician is indispensable in these classes. I can only express a lively wish, that by the time the next report is made, no auxiliary school will be found unprovided with the regular aid of a physician." In regard to transferring individual children from the auxiliary school into the folk school, the minister in the same report says: "In certain places older children are put back into lower classes of the folk school. This ought to be avoided. For the difference in age between children so transferred and their younger classmates produces the very difficulties which the auxiliary classes are designed to prevent, and they would soon go out into life from the lower classes with an education inadequate to earning a livelihood."

Thus far the activity of the Prussian ministry of education touching the development of instruction in auxiliary schools has gone. It has on the one hand approved of what already exists, and on the other has stimulated the creation of that class of schools.^a The teacher of a Prussian auxiliary school can congratulate himself on the point of view taken by the state authorities. Whenever a superior authority has faith in the insight and generosity of the larger communities, and in the zeal and devotion of all those who labor for the cause of auxiliary schools, then this cause will make better progress than when individual initiative is smothered by legislative prescription. So far as I know, the Prussian central authority has issued no coercive and narrowing regulations whatsoever. At present certainly its concern is merely to collect information regarding the measures that have been taken and recommend them for general adoption if found worthy of approval.

The other German states soon copied the praiseworthy example set by Prussia; many of them, as the kingdom of Saxony and others, entered simultaneously upon this work, the majority followed. The summary appearing in the minutes of the fourth session of the national association, and the proceedings relating to the foundation of auxiliary schools in Germany, published in the "Hilfsschule," give the particulars concerning the provision made by German municipalities for pupils of weak endowment. This provision has reached such a point, according to a report in the school journal (Schulblatt) of Saxony of January 11, 1905, that there are at this time in Germany 180 cities giving instruction in auxiliary schools to 492 classes enrolling 5,868 boys and 4,753 girls. Including Berlin, we may say that there are in Germany 583 classes, enrolling 6,623 defective boys and 5,300 defective girls.

The formation of the principals, teachers, and promoters of auxiliary schools into associations is to be welcomed as a gratifying outcome of the lively interest taken in this class of schools in Germany. Not only did some of the pioneers in this field in 1898 form themselves into a national association of auxiliary schools with Doctor Wehrhan, city superintendent of Hanover, as president, but the auxiliary school teachers of individual provinces, smaller civil divisions, and neighboring cities also organized themselves into associations. In these associations the work of the auxiliary school finds a steady encouragement, and everyone who serves the cause finds therein incitement to further service.

^a While this was in press a further report (Jan. 2, 1905) appeared, which recounts with approbation the attainment during the meanwhile of what was hoped for in the earlier official documents.

Discussions on various subjects in this field are printed in the general pedagogical press and in publications specially devoted to auxiliary school affairs. To the latter are to be added the oft-mentioned proceedings of the sessions of the national association, the "Zeitschrift für die Behandlung Schwachsinniger und Epileptischer," the "Kinderfehler" (the organ of the movement in Germany for auxiliary schools), the "Zeitschrift für pädagogische Psychologie und Pathologie," the collections of dissertations from the field of pedagogical psychology and physiology, contributions to pedagogical pathology, the "Hilfsschule," and the newly founded "Eos," a quarterly journal for the knowledge and treatment of abnormal youth. Besides these, there is an extensive independent literature on the subject, so extensive, indeed, as to require a reliable bibliographical guide.

But the movement for auxiliary schools has won a foothold in other countries. According to the "Zeitschrift für Schulgesundheitspflege," the special schooling of meagerly endowed children was first considered in Austria in 1895. At that time, in pursuance of a regulation of a Vienna district school board, these children were sought out in the folk schools and "burgher" schools, and not only instructed in auxiliary classes, but a special department of instruction was organized for defective children of school age. In the year 1902 the organization of the association for the care of meagerly endowed children was planned; this union is striving to bring about a closer connection between the existing schools of this kind, as well as the further establishment of such institutions in the city, country, and community, and, moreover, devotes itself to the care of those dismissed from school and those in need of legal protection. But, on the whole, the Austrian school provision for deficient children is yet on a very low plane. "Austria has only half as many classes for deficient children as the city of Hamburg. The great majority of her abnormal children are without any instruction at all or remain as a burden upon the general folk schools."

According to an account in the quarterly journal "Eos" in 1905, the Kingdom of Hungary is also beginning to take an interest in the partially abnormal child. However, since that time only one independent auxiliary school, with several special classes, at Budapest, has been reported. But it is to be hoped that the Commission for School Hygiene will actively engage in organizing them and that the admirable views urged by its chairman, Dr. A. v. Náray, of Szabó, concerning the special scientific training of teachers for them will produce their desired effect, so that a sufficient number of auxiliary schools for the subnormally endowed may be established in Hungary.

In Switzerland auxiliary classes have existed since 1888. Basel and Bern each claim the credit for first establishing special instruc-

tion for subnormally endowed children in the Cantons. But they did not long continue alone in this work. A great number of other cities soon followed their example, so that by 1903 there were as many as 53 auxiliary classes in Switzerland, enrolling 1,096 children. In these classes 55 teachers (12 men, 43 women) were giving instruction. In order that they might secure as much uniformity as possible in the development of auxiliary schools, the Swiss Public Welfare Society (Schweizerische Gemeinnützige Gesellschaft) determined in 1898 to establish a course of instruction for teachers of special classes. This plan was realized, and the course was given in the first quarter of the school year 1899-1900 at Zurich with marked success.

In Italy there are at the present time no regular auxiliary classes. In several of the larger cities of the Kingdom, however, the backward pupils of the elementary schools are grouped together under the instruction of a woman teacher. The national association for the care of weak-minded children, which was organized in 1898, had in mind, among other things, to urge that instruction in auxiliary classes be given in connection with the regular elementary schools. All pupils who were not too far below the normal in mental ability were to have in these classes instruction within their power of comprehension. According to K. Richter's account, there was founded at Rome in the year 1900 a kind of teachers' seminary, where teachers of both sexes might be made familiar with the treatment of defectives and with the means to serve and care for them. Independent of the above-mentioned national association, an asylum school for poor children of weak minds was started at Rome in 1899 by Dr. Sante de Sanctis, a university professor. This school offers a day home to about 40 pupils. The preceptress, who is an elementary school-teacher, works under the direction of the founder, a prominent psychiatrist. A teacher for training the children to speak normally, one for physical training, and one for music cooperate with her in this work. However, from the report of this institution made on April 16, 1903, and also from a letter written by the amiable and enthusiastic director concerning the management, it is learned that no programme of studies is regularly carried out. Since the so-called medico-pedagogical method prevails in this asylum school, more weight is given to medical and general educational considerations in conducting it than to formal school instruction. It is not in place here to pass judgment on the scope of the work of Prof. Sante de Sanctis, also described by K. Richter, or upon its practicability and results. It may be said in passing that as compulsory school attendance obtains only up to the tenth year of age, it is plain that it will require much persistent labor before even the general aims of the national association, the aims had in view by the philanthropic and intellectually superior circles in Italy, can be even approximately attained.

In France they are not yet fully convinced of the great value of a general treatment for weakly endowed children. To be sure, according to Dr. J. Morin in the Parisian journal, *Foi et Vie*, of November 16, 1904, Séguin, J. Bost, and Bourneville have made investigations, respectively, upon the mental, moral, and social capabilities of defectives; but aside from the reports on the medico-pedagogical method which is employed at Bicêtre, near Paris, I know nothing of schools for weak-minded children in France. The complaint of the author of the essay "Pour les enfants anormaux" in the "Manuel général de l'instruction primaire" for 1904 is therefore warranted when he says: "The most autocratically ruled States of Europe have made instruction democratic, and have opened schools for all their subjects, in which nervous, deaf and dumb, or idiotic, as well as healthy children, can be instructed. With us the opposite is the case; while our scholars were the first to point out the means to alleviate the natural defects of mankind, the teaching of abnormals has become so exclusive that the families concerned are often compelled to permit their children to grow up as chance wills. Oh, you poor creatures, predestined to remain unarmed in the struggle for existence."

Russia, Germany's eastern neighbor, also knows nothing of auxiliary classes. In St. Petersburg there has been, so far as can be learned, since 1882 a medico-educational institution managed by Doctor Maljarewski. Here are received idiots and feebly endowed children from wealthy circles. Another institution at St. Petersburg, maintained by the religious "Order of the Mother of God" and aided by the empress dowager, receives, it is said, epileptic and idiotic children from homes of poverty, and has been giving to them since 1903 school instruction also.

Richer and more positive, comparatively speaking, are the reports from Sweden. According to the Swedish Teachers' Journal of December, 1904 (*Die schwedische Lehrerzeitung*), Stockholm will establish this year auxiliary classes in the folk schools. The folk school teachers of the Swedish capital have, since 1900 and 1901, directed the attention of the school authorities to those "abnormal children who are hindered in their development," and pointed out the necessary methods of instruction for such children. At the same time it was shown by Dr. G. Hellström that of the 25,089 pupils of the folk schools in Stockholm, 87, or 0.35 per cent, were foolish, and 473, or 1.88 per cent, were backward. The superior authorities of the municipal folk schools have determined, in cooperation with the folk school teachers, to establish during the next year a number of auxiliary classes for backward children, in each of which the number of children shall not exceed 12. The children must have attended school from two to six terms ("Termine") without making progress, and can be admitted only after a medical examination. Instruction, which is

not to exceed four hours daily, is to be imparted by women teachers who volunteer to do this work.

According to private information, auxiliary schools have been established after the fashion of German models at Christiania, Bergen, and Trondhjem, in Norway. Copenhagen in Denmark has had an auxiliary school since 1900. We learn from the account of a journey made by Schenk in Holland and Belgium in 1900, and published in the "Kinderfehler," of the auxiliary school system in these countries. He explains to the reader how actively, especially on the part of physicians, they are meeting the educational needs of their abnormal children.

Similar things can be said of England. Here the auxiliary school system has been developed almost exactly according to the German model. A so-called "permissive act" of the year 1899 puts the matter in the hands of communities, who at their pleasure do or do not adopt the statutory regulations for auxiliary school instruction. The adoption of the provisions of the law makes it binding upon a city "to place the auxiliary schools founded by it under the supervision of State authorities, but it thereby obtains a share in State aid, paid according to the report of the inspector." One of the most important provisions of the law is the rule for compulsory school attendance up to the sixteenth year of age.^a The English auxiliary schools have from one to three classes; women teachers give instruction in them. The first school for the instruction of subnormally endowed children was opened in London in the year 1892. Their number so increased that in 1903 there were 60 schools with 3,063 pupils. Nevertheless this number is not considered at all adequate; for within a short time almost as many more schools will be established, so that more than 5,000 children will be enrolled. But London, with perhaps 9,000 or 10,000 defective children to care for, is not alone in taking advantage of the permissive act; a great number of cities are following the lead set by the capital city in the care of mental defectives, and in the year 1903 at Manchester an auxiliary school association was formed after the German type, to whose work belongs also the care of physically defective children.

A plan for auxiliary schools in the United States was formulated about the same time that one was in England. Up to the year 1894, mentally backward children in the regular public school classes were treated just as children spoiled by neglect. Both classes were sent to so-called disciplinary schools. But when the character of minor

^a The legal requirements for schools for defective and epileptic children in England provide that "no child may be admitted at less than 7 years of age, or retained after reaching the age of 16." This is permissive rather than compulsory education in our sense of the term.—TRANSLATOR.

mental abnormalities was made known, at least to some degree, through investigations in child study, public and private classes were established for backward children in connection with the regular public schools. There were in the United States last year, according to private information, 27 State and 28 private schools of this nature. According to the official advance sheets [of the Report of the Commissioner of Education] from Washington, there were, in 1903, 20 State schools with 277 teachers and 12,079 pupils enrolled, and 12 private institutions, with 62 teachers and 495 pupils. The great majority of the pupils are put into schools of three classes, each of which is limited to 15 pupils. The teachers are, for the most part, women; for among the 277 teachers in the State schools there are only 61 men. The superintendents of these schools are in the main physicians and make annual reports to the Commissioner of Education at Washington. In these reports, which are published in advance sheets, the reader may find many valuable observations and much practical information.

Finally, it should be mentioned that news has reached us from Australia of an auxiliary school movement there. According to private information, special classes have existed in Sydney and Melbourne for several years.

The foregoing review of the widening movement for auxiliary schools makes it clear that the idea has taken firm hold, not as the "work of individual Hotspurs," but much more as a world-wide call to duty of all those circles to which the culture of mankind makes special and genuine appeal. Many a different conception with respect to the tasks and their performance exists. Still, there is much unanimity in those countries we have mentioned. The greater cities, often the capitals of smaller or greater States, with their industrial population, form the point of attack and the place for the development of auxiliary schools. Now and then a private sanitarium which has the care of the abnormal children of well-to-do parents becomes the pattern for school arrangements for the poorest classes. The tendency everywhere is to organize the single classes into schools, either in connection with the public schools or in complete independence. Often these newest forms of schools are included in the highest school administration of the land in order to guarantee a uniform development. The desire for uniformity prevails over all, but not to such an extent as to crush individual differences, provided they are traditionally or scientifically grounded.

This freedom extends itself to the purposes, to the methods of organization, to the collaborators, and not least of all, to the measures employed. Indeed, the views concerning the children who are to attend are willingly granted the widest scope. Hence, the weak-minded pupils are not always clearly distinguished from the meagerly

endowed. The consequence of this vague distinction is usually the prevalence of idiotic children in the auxiliary schools and the repression of a rational didactic method in favor of a medico-pedagogical method. In Germany, the native land of institutions for meagerly endowed pupils, we hold firmly, and as I believe, rightly so, to the didactic principle, and preserve the character of a school, and yet with all due regard to the results of medical investigations. Experience teaches that the school administrations of different countries follow the example set by Germany and acknowledge her laudable guidance in the auxiliary school movement.

II.—REASONS FOR THE ESTABLISHMENT OF AUXILIARY SCHOOLS.

Before the movement began which has just been mentioned it was the task of the folk school to take charge of and advance all pupils, even those who from the first were incapable of advancement. It was taken as a matter of course, unworthy of special thought, that that institution of learning which gave to the children the minimum amount of that knowledge which a child of the lowest classes must have, should also take care of such pupils as could not keep pace at all with their fellows. Perhaps this matter-of-course attitude was, on the one hand, the expression of a certain helplessness in the face of many inexplicable psychical phenomena of childhood, but, on the other hand, it was the manifestation of an opinion which even yet is not entirely suppressed, that the folk school must not form too comprehensive ideas of the minimum of elementary education; it must not advance too quickly in the mastering of the subjects of instruction and disregard the average endowment of the pupils; so it will do no harm if it is checked in its upward striving by some proper ballast. Finally, the schoolman has also contributed his share that no segregation in the folk school should be made. Impressed by the omnipotence of the catechetical art of instruction and by the marvelous power of discipline in the school, he would gladly believe that he could always successfully influence in their intellectual development all the pupils intrusted to him.

For these ideas suggested—ideas which nowadays may seem exaggerated—we can find, however, a real background when we think of the school conditions of the not very distant past. We need only to carry our thoughts back to the public school conditions under which we lived in the seventies, and even in the eighties, of the last century.

The teacher of the primary class in the folk school has seventy or more pupils assigned to him. Their parents do not consider it neces-

sary to give him any helpful information regarding certain peculiarities of their little ones. For the most part they are happy to know the little tormentors are in more or less capable hands. Now begins the teacher's hard work. As far as he can, he tries to be of equal service to all the children of his class, both as regards development and instruction. As the teacher of a lower class is generally a beginner in his art, a long time passes before his eyes are opened to the conduct of some of his pupils. In the normal school, to be sure, he was told not to treat all children alike; yet as a normal school student he carried away the cheerful impression into his practical work that instruction possessing logical sequence and clearness of thought and consistent and inexorable discipline can be simply all-powerful in the expansion and unfolding of little—yes, even the smallest—minds.

Soon, however, difficulties arose in his honest effort to satisfy the demands of the prescribed course of study. Not only were there children in the class who failed entirely to comprehend or repeat the work, but gradually he found children from whom he could not draw a single word. Other pupils, again, could not submit to his discipline, and by their restlessness brought the whole class into disorder. As a true follower of Pestalozzi, the teacher gave himself up to these pupils, who were so much below the desired average of the class, and tried to induce them to cooperate in the class work; but even when his demands on them were but small, his indulgence and patience were not rewarded in the least. Then he lost his patience occasionally and became a stern judge of every misbehavior and failure to do the work.

These judging scenes in the class, which came oftener and oftener, and were a continual source of excitement and annoyance for the teacher, afforded also a series of deep sorrows for the pupils in question. They do not understand why the teacher is so strict with them. They only feel that their comrades are not only indifferent to their troubles, but even like to make fun of them. As a result their sensitive natures harden and their weakened minds are more and more stunted. Indifferently they sit there during lessons, filled with the eager desire to stay far away from school. If up to this time the teacher lost patience only now and again, as he tried to benefit these pupils who hindered his progress so greatly, now his whole interest in them disappears once for all. Next he takes care that the pupils who sit near them are removed from the sphere of their unwholesome influence. Then he leaves them to themselves, and thus makes them entirely passive listeners.

But now comes the time for promotions. How happy the teacher is to take his capable pupils on to the higher class and leave behind those who only annoyed him. With the recommendation "irreclaimable dregs" and "troublesome ballast," they are handed over

to his successor, and a new year of troubles begins for pupils and teacher. Indeed, shall the pupils who possibly even in the second year do not reach the class standard continually remain in this one class? The view that the perpetual sameness of the subjects must at last deaden even the little intellect left leads to the final decision that at least the oldest members of the "dregs," on account of their age, should be allowed to go on to a higher class. It is thought that the stimulus of new subjects may arouse new life in those minds which gradually have become indifferent. Unfortunately the result does not come up to the expectation. The scholars marked out in their class by the difference of age must put up with much rudeness from their fellows, and possibly often hear from the teacher himself that nothing in the world can be done with them. So it is no wonder if all self-respect finally dies out; they have no more confidence in themselves, and are still more in the way in the school.

With each succeeding year the teacher wishes more earnestly to get rid of those pupils who so entirely mar the favorable impression which his class might make, but ever and again must he suppress his desire; for only two possible ways are open to the folk school to rid itself of burdensome and absolutely incapable pupils. In one case it is the reformatory school, which opens its doors, however, only to incorrigible vagabonds; in the other, an institution for idiots can take in a child which is a common danger on account of its entire helplessness or its imbecility. Whoever has tried to bring either proposal before the authorities knows how hard it is to place a child in either one of these institutions.

Taking for granted, then, that among the unpromoted pupils, who in the course of time are pushed into the middle classes, only a very small number are fit subjects for the above-mentioned institutions, what is to become of the others, who are more numerous and whom the folk school dare not and can not shut out? Since it has no right to expel a child on account of lack of natural endowment, the arrival of confirmation time must be awaited, when his dismissal from school will be authorized.

Now, just imagine eight such lost years—years of unsatisfactory work and annoyance for the teacher; years of handicapping and misleading for the pupil of average ability, and, finally, years of stunting of body and soul for the mentally deficient. Should not a change have taken place early in order to prevent all the annoyance, all the disappointments, and all the bodily as well as spiritual harm, for the latter especially will stand in the way of the neglected pupil as he goes out into life?

And is it an honor for the honest work of the folk school when pupils who have been confirmed in church are dismissed from its lower and middle classes? You will answer, "If nowadays such

things should happen in the folk school the inspectors of the city school administration have probably not been able to effect what proper earlier help would surely have brought about. They should have proceeded as follows: The manufacturing places, which are here specially in question, should build public schoolhouses for a small number of classes in districts of equal size, in order to prevent free wandering from school to school among the pupils; the number of pupils in the classes should be lowered from 70 to 50 at the highest; the school principals are to be told to dispense with all unnecessary material in the curriculum; the educative influence of the personality of a good teacher is not to be broken up or lost by a yearly change, or even by departmental teaching in the different classes."

Any public school teacher or principal who has watched the rapid growth of an industrial town will have to recognize the great demands on the unselfishness of the city authorities and the best insight of the city school directors into that which is for the good of the school. What inspectors, school administrators, and argument could do at the time has been done in the city communities. And yet the goal is not reached, namely, that each year all the pupils should be advanced equally, relatively speaking, in their education.

In a German educational paper of October 9, 1904 (*Die Allgemeine Deutsche Lehrerzeitung*), Mr. Wagner quotes a notice from the *Christian World*, of Vienna, which may serve here as proof of this: "Just visit once the folk schools in the so-called workingmen's districts, in Favoriten and Ottakring, and see how many children of the first or second class of the folk school have almost completed the time of their compulsory attendance. Regarding how many children is it written in the register: 'Promoted to next class only on account of his age and size!' How many children leave school without having mastered even the elements of reading and writing!"

Mr. Wagner gives another similar statement from a daily newspaper, which pictures the conditions in London. It is as follows:

Judge (to a 15-year-old boy who is physically extraordinarily well developed): "Why don't you work?" Boy: "I can't." Mother: "He will be 15 this year and can leave school." Judge to boy: "In which class were you?" Boy: "In the first" (which corresponds to our lowest). Judge: "But that is the infant class. Say, my boy, how many weeks are there in a year?" Boy: "I don't know." Judge: "Did no one ever tell you?" Boy: "No." Judge: "How many days are there in a week?" Boy: "I don't know." Mother: "In certain lines he is not very talented, but in others he is just that much cleverer. Yesterday morning he took a shilling out of his brother's pocket and spent two hours eating and drinking in the public house. He won't work; he only wants to eat and drink."

Even if nowadays in Germany children are no longer sent out into life from the lowest class, there are unfortunately still enough who

leave with the very imperfect education of the third school grade, having remained as the dregs of the school for eight years.

An analysis of the "dregs" which never advance properly in the school would give us perhaps the following groups of pupils:

1. Children who have difficulties of speech, are weak sighted, hard of hearing, or epileptic. Some years there will be strikingly few of these, others again, more. How they can hinder the teacher's work ought to be well enough known. And yet even these pupils have a right to harmonious development in the school. For them, therefore, a modern hygienic or curative pedagogy would make special provision in the form of courses for correcting their speech, or form special classes for those hard of hearing, the weak sighted, and the epileptic. This kind of separate treatment can really show great results, but, unfortunately, in many a community the establishment of such special classes is a wish which for many reasons can not be realized.

2. Probably the pupils who have constantly lagged behind in the lower classes of the folk school have healthy organs of sense and speech, but they are not in a position to properly work over the stimuli of the outer world into higher psychical products. Besides this, many a time this working over process goes on so slowly that a continuous forcing to strained attention, an endless drill in the folk school class, really harm such a child. But would it therefore be justifiable to take away from him all the influence of proper school training?

Decades passed in the folk school before the view became general, first, that there can really be children who, as a result of their abnormal psychical powers, prove the powerlessness of all didactic art, and then that their condition should be the cause of the establishment of a school specially adapted to their needs. Next, critical observers among practical schoolmen awakened wider interest in the various types established by such observations. Then the research work of the exact psychologist and the psychiatrist began, always helped on by the individual observer, and gradually developed a more general insight into the abnormal development of the child, a development which demands special treatment at home and in school.

The presentation of the preceding course of development in the matter of auxiliary schools has been able to show considerable unanimity in this insight. As far as I know, only one expression of the other side of the question has been made public. J. H. Witte ascribes the establishment of auxiliary schools to the influence of an almost obtrusive activity on the part of certain hot-heads and their clever scheming. That is a startling statement. However, Witte really does not wish to startle. He gives reasons for his assertion. He

thinks that the auxiliary schools withdraw the mentally deficient pupils from the helpful influence of the more gifted, and that the effort to benefit a class made up only of the deficient can never be successful. Rather let the disobedient pupils be put in among the obedient, one-third weak-minded pupils among two-thirds strong.

This old school recipe is certainly often applied by individualizing teachers when they are dealing with pupils who are often inattentive, frivolous at times, and now and then indolent. If, however, even with the very best intentions, the pupil can not be attentive at all, if he is continually forced by bodily deficiencies to remain mentally indolent, if, further, his moral balance remains unsteady on account of many illnesses, is it not better to bring about a separation as soon as possible? The so-called better environment in the class can never spur him on to anything better. To see oneself surpassed by those about one embitters the mind, and this, during and after the gloomy school days, may hasten on all kinds of moral defects, often to the detriment of human society.

How different, on the other hand, is the mental attitude of a child trained in an auxiliary class! He is enlivened, stimulated, his whole emotional attitude is changed. Now he soon notices that he makes a certain progress with other fellow-pupils, that the teacher is concerned with him as with all the others; now he is also withdrawn from the scorn of his classmates, because the teacher's harsh words and corporal punishment have been changed into kindly treatment. Besides, the instruction is now suited to his mental horizon, to his field of view, so that rays of increasing enlightenment sometimes fall into the gloomy twilight of his mind. Of course this mental progress will not be seen at once. Time is needed for him to accustom himself to new conditions, for a weakened or abnormal mind needs a longer time and often, too, more powerful supports than a normal one. But time will, finally, with the aid of the inspiring consciousness of being able to do something, make firm the unstable moral balance, so that it is a real philanthropic duty to separate the mentally weak pupils from the mentally strong. And when Witte calls "the coupling together of the weak with the weak" a measure of superior strength imposed upon burdensome weakness, he is overlooking the fact that a child gets along best in that circle whose members are nearest to his own mental condition. Thus, pedagogy makes no confession of failure in speaking of separating the dull pupils from the more gifted and placing them in a special class or school.

Witte advances further an objection of a hygienic nature against the establishment of an auxiliary school. "The weak-minded, being sickly and physically incapable of resisting disease, naturally become sources of epidemics." But this contention is also unsound. To begin with, at the suggestion of the State authorities, every auxiliary school

in Prussia is under constant medical supervision; in the next place, the teachers are gradually so taught by practical experience that they are finally able, working hand in hand with the physicians, to avoid the spread of diseases; moreover, whoever has observed health conditions among auxiliary school pupils for a number of years, can prove that they are attacked by children's diseases much less than folk school pupils. The reason for this lies in the fact that these pupils have already had nearly all the infectious diseases before coming to the auxiliary school, and are now suffering from the results of these. So these special classes can not very well be the points of departure and the sources of epidemic diseases.

Finally, Witte is not afraid to accuse the champions of the auxiliary schools of materialistic tendencies. According to him, "they fall for the most part victims to the superficial advocates of scientific medical theories which are still unproved, and of the so-called experimental psychology, according to which it is alleged that the mental life is entirely dependent upon the physical, the spiritual existence upon the bodily—a view which is as sad as it is false."

This is not the place to discuss the well-known "ignoramus," the sad avowal that the investigator may be able to recognize individual expressions and workings of the spiritual life, and occasionally to prove as well their dependence upon physical conditions, but that it will always be impossible for him to arrive at a clear idea of the unity of the mental and the physical. The practical schoolman knows very well this limitation, and of course does not fall into a materialistic channel when he asserts: "This child shows certain mental peculiarities as a result of disease, which he either inherited or contracted after birth, and does not make progress in the folk school. But he is not responsible for his weak condition. He can not make any intellectual progress in the ordinary school because his organism is more or less abnormal." Let it be granted that the brain processes give no direct clew as to how the spiritual life, as such, comes to exist, and let a divine endowment be assumed to these processes; psychiatry and experimental psychology can unfortunately reveal plainly enough at times that this divine gift in man is so small, and in addition is so held within bodily limits, that a disregard or even a contempt for the physical may be fatal to this endowment. This view no practical schoolman can repudiate. Yet he by no means needs to confess himself a disciple of the so-called "medical pedagogy," which takes most delight in proving an inner economic activity of the brain and regards the whole convex cerebral surface as a deposit of moving memory pictures.

It must indeed be recognized, says L. Strümpell, that medical therapeutics has placed in a clear light the dependence of a normal development of the bodily life upon a rightly directed psychic life,

and has pointed to the manifold injuries to the body resulting from a false pedagogical practice. But therapeutics has its limits. Above all, it can not be the guardian of the whole realm of pedagogy; it must hold itself aloof from speculations which lack the basis of experience. And experience regarding the development of the bodily and spiritual life of the child, for example, is comparatively recent, and demands so much deepening and broadening that purely materialistic speculations are attended with risk.

But upon such data, which we may rightly call superficial, we do not base the necessity for the auxiliary school. Rather it will help to understand the child with his psychical deficiencies and good qualities on a basis of observation already authenticated. For this purpose the teacher uses the demonstrable results of child psychology, and works especially in the field of so-called psychopathic deficiency in childhood. This idea, used first by Koch and later by Trüper, marks the great intervening realm between the sickly and the healthy mind, which is as rich in its phenomena as it is difficult to recognize. We shall not characterize them here. It is enough to have noted their existence, which, with all due consideration of the physical basis, can not make apparent the dependence of the spiritual being upon the physical. As a result, the odium of materialism can never be attached to the champions of the auxiliary school, and the basis for the necessity of its establishment can not be called uncertain or superficial.

The occasion for the establishment of auxiliary schools is therefore given, in spite of Witte, by the real—not imaginary—existence of pupils who can not be advanced in the folk school. These children are perhaps not simply dull, but those who, for various reasons, do not think, feel, and will normally, and so are incapable of following the regular school work. For them, therefore, the common school—the ordinary school—is not the place which can awaken or improve their weak or abnormal psychical qualities. On the contrary, the regular school, with its order and activity, will be a place of torture for them, which suppresses still more the little good that remains in their weakened minds, and this to the detriment of society, members of which they will be later on. For all larger districts, in which a number of such children are found, it is therefore an absolute necessity to have a class for their special aid.

But is the folk school the only one having pupils who, for various reasons, can not in any way be advanced? The teachers in the middle schools, the preparatory schools, as well as in the higher schools for boys and girls, will certainly be able to think of individual pupils who might far better have stayed away from these schools. In his school investigations, Leubuscher found two mentally abnormal among 165 pupils at the Meininger Realgymnasium. Certainly this

one secondary school is not distinguished from all others in this regard. Laquer says even that the defectives among the well-to-do classes are, comparatively speaking, not less numerous than those from the working classes. At first glance this seems exaggerated. But whoever knows Benda's estimates and has read Altenburg's splendid exposition of the art of psychological observation, will have to agree with Laquer.

Now, the secondary school has an advantage over the folk school, and in this case it is an enviable one, namely, the privilege of dismissing unfit pupils. Strangely enough, it seldom uses this privilege. This is the case because the school directors seldom succeed in making well-educated people of high standing in society understand that their deficient children suffer much from the work which the school must demand and from the external organization of school life. They torture the child with private lessons, or give him over to pedagogical bunglers, before they realize that the work of the higher school can not be accomplished and mastered by the untalented, poorly endowed children of rich parents. For such children special schools or special institutions, as, for example, Trüper's "Erziehungsheim," are more appropriate than the regular school.

III.—ADMISSION PROCEDURE.

We have previously shown that, to the detriment of the school, children are frequently kept behind, some in the first year, others in the second or third year, who might better be placed in an auxiliary class or school. We have now these questions to answer: When is the proper time to remove these children from the school, and how can we be at all sure that no pupil is unjustly placed in the auxiliary school?

In the development of our pupils, which is often spasmodic and sometimes very one-sided, it may happen that the teacher of the regular school, allowing himself to be guided by the mood of the moment, may without reflection deny that this or that pupil has any talent whatever, and declare him a fit candidate for the auxiliary school. Or it can easily happen that by his unfortunate home conditions, his being overburdened with manual labor outside of school hours, and by irregular attendance at school, which is perhaps a result of frequent change of residence on the part of his parents, a child may be mentally injured to such an extent that the teacher becomes impatient and is soon ready to propose that he be placed in a special class. Finally, it is possible in individual cases that, owing to repeated instances of punishment, the pupil develops a certain defiance which for the time being prevents all mental progress, and the

teacher develops an aversion which keeps alive in him the desire to bring about the removal of such elements from the school. Are the authorities, then, to consider the proposals in all the cases mentioned? But the fate of the pupils must not be dependent on the moods or prejudices of the class teacher. Therefore the school principal should advise every teacher who makes these proposals to spend more time in wider observation. Sometimes, especially with children in intermediate grades, it is helpful to transfer them to another teacher. A change of classes often has the same effect as a change of air on a sick person. Everything must be tried in order to prevent the dismissal from the public school, as incapable of learning, of any child who can to any extent be benefited there. To do this the teacher of the regular school must be more psychologically trained than formerly, that he may be more an educator than an instructor.^a And in truth he must have developed not only a profound understanding of normal children and a deep interest in their treatment, but he must also show at least a general acquaintance with the development of the child soul, which so easily becomes abnormal. Naturally, in thinking of the physical and mental good of the individual pupil, the teacher must not lose sight of the whole class; but, at least in the case of the most conspicuous pupils in his class, he has to give valid reasons for his proposal of separation which are based upon considerable observation. In other words, the folk-school teacher, as well as every other teacher, must be able to detect readily the signs of mental deficiency in children.

At present there is much discussion, to be sure, regarding the proper representation of the conception "weak-mindedness" (*Schwachsinn*), and regarding the classification of its various phenomena; every investigator in this field tries to find other words when he wishes to express the idea of weak-mindedness. In the practical conduct of the public school, however, we are not concerned with scientific definitions and distinctions, but with the gradual understanding of the deviations of a child nature from its normal path of development. And the school, with its systematic activity, offers abundant and undoubtedly the best opportunity for the determination of the spiritual condition of the child.

Many a child afflicted from birth may develop at home pretty much as other children, except perhaps more slowly, but at school it shows very strikingly that it is not able to meet the high demands which, for example, the first two school years make upon every child. Either it appears to be indifferent during the lessons (*apathetic*), or apparently keenly interested, but without any deep mental participa-

^a This recommendation has recently again been made by G. Wanke, in his *Psychiatrie und Pädagogik* (Wiesbaden, Bergmann, 1905).

tion in them (erethistic). In the one case the child gets tired very easily, and his eyes grow dull, because he can not grasp all the concrete details of the material of instruction, and because the reflection necessary for the comprehension of the subject presented is wearisome. By an examination the teacher can very clearly see the narrow range of his knowledge, and also that his ideas are disconnected and lack all systematic arrangement. As a result, his memory seems to be a mere sieve, his judgments are never decided, and his conceptions are never fully formed. In the other case, the pupil is apparently very much interested in the subject presented by the teacher, is probably very attentive, but his attention is soon distracted. Any object at all which appeals to his senses can not be overlooked by him, but must be observed carefully. Continuous attention is for him an utter impossibility. Even his tendency to motor activity prevents him from carrying out any possible resolution he may have made to be attentive. Such a pupil simply can not sit still; in spite of all the teacher's commands he has to move his head, hands, and feet and would like best of all to run about the class room.

Another case may come to the notice of the observant teacher. Sometimes a child appears apathetic only because a defect of speech has made him silent. Perhaps during the first weeks at school he tried to take part in the lessons, but he was made conscious of his deficiency by the teacher's criticisms and still more by his school-mates' teasing, and now he can not be persuaded to reveal by speech what all his brooding means. When the defects of the child's organs of speech are easily seen, his unwillingness to speak in the presence of others is readily explained. But a divided palate, an abnormally developed uvula, or an abnormal tongue are not so easily discovered as being the causes of faulty speech. And when we think how numerous are the difficulties of speech which come under the general heads of stammering or stuttering, or when finally we consider how often speech, and at the same time thought, are checked by pathological conditions in the air passages, we open up fields which show the teacher how hard it is to discover all the phases of the abnormal child mind.

A further difficulty arises, however, when the talkative child confronts the one who to all appearances is dumb. Talkativeness, like restlessness of body, may be construed as a deviation from the normal child development. Sometimes during the lesson the child who is afflicted with too great talkativeness answers correctly. The teacher is then inclined to declare that this pupil, who is apparently so well developed as far as speech is concerned, is mentally capable. But gradually the senselessness of his talk is revealed; for the most dif-

ferent problems he has often only the one solution, and for one question, the wording of which is but slightly varied, he has at least one hundred answers ready. These last are quite without meaning and resemble the so-called reflex actions, which must be performed without the cooperation of higher mental activity.

As a solution of the difficulties which are constantly arising, it has been thought that certain typical signs can be pointed to whereby fit candidates for an auxiliary school, or weak-minded persons in general, can be detected. So in various writings we find references to external marks of abnormal child nature which are easy to recognize. According to their representations, nature has given the observer distinct signs by which to fathom the inner man. This view is confirmed, too, by experience. Now and then among deficient children we come across some who have very large, almost square heads, or very small, pointed ones. Now we see skulls which are unsymmetrical, again we meet the so-called Mongolian type, and the frog or the bird face. Since, however, other experiences may teach the opposite, we have recently given up the theory of the so-called signs of degeneration. They are not to be taken as sure signs of mental deficiency; at most they can only serve in the way of confirmation.

It is very clear that in the teacher's observations lack of intelligence will play a great part. But it is not the only standard by which to judge abnormal psychical development in a child. Generally, in addition to mental deficiencies there is a social and ethical defect, and perhaps also a defect on the side of the emotions. The abnormal child is not only mentally restricted, he is perverse in morals, hostile to society, and either rough and coarse or all too gentle. He violates the laws of good manners in every possible way, likes to do those things which most children hate, and sometimes gives himself up to those sexual errors which finally influence his health. Not until urged will he take part in play with children of his own age; he would rather brood in corners than play of his own free will. And if he does stay with his playmates he often gets into a passion; either he is irritable or a nuisance on account of over-sensitiveness. In these abnormal pupils the teacher may also discover a tendency to damage things, and if circumstances are favorable this may turn to the tormenting of animals and of human beings. They like to seize and destroy what others cherish, and show malicious joy at the pain of animals or the sufferings of their fellows. Further, the abnormal pupil sometimes causes his parents and the whole school much anxiety by wandering off; often without cause, often from fear of punishment, he leaves the neighborhood, roams about in districts unfamiliar to him, and passes the night in the most unheard-of places. After some time he returns in a most deplorable condition and is usually

unable to give any reason for his wanderings. If all these deeds and improprieties of which this child is guilty are followed by warnings and punishments, the teacher soon sees the uselessness of trying to influence him. Neither words nor blows have any educative result; even enticements and rewards fail.

But in thus characterizing the ethical and emotional defects, we must not neglect to consider the extent of their connection with the mental defects—for how many children, especially boys at the “awkward age” and even girls in the years of development, deviate from the normal in the development of their emotions and their will, and yet are not subjects for an auxiliary school. For this deviation, however, they are not always to blame; faulty training, unfortunate home conditions, and unsuitable surroundings in general, often bring about the child’s demoralization rather than any pathological condition. Moral defects in themselves, therefore, must not be taken to indicate pathological conditions. Neglected children, as such, do not then belong in the auxiliary school, or it would soon take the form of an institution for the care and reformation of children, with continually changing classes, while it should be, on the contrary, a school tending to become, so to speak, a pedagogical sanitarium.

In the foregoing we have merely suggested the teacher’s difficulty in furnishing convincing evidence regarding the deficiencies and peculiarities in the whole being of a pupil whom he contemplates transferring from the folk school to an auxiliary school. Many phenomena and manifestations seem to the teacher to be infallible proofs of abnormality, while other observations cause him to hesitate. And so, many a pupil becomes a psychological puzzle to him; but should he continue to be so? The teacher must seek the solution of this puzzle, and that by finding out the particulars of the development of the pupil in question before he entered the school. Perhaps the home may furnish the teacher a sufficient explanation of the child’s strange conduct.

To gain this end he may take one of two ways. Either the mother is asked to come to the school and give an explanation, or the teacher seeks out the pupil in the parent’s home. The first way is of course the easier, but also the less satisfactory; for it isn’t everyone’s disposition to enter the house of the poorest of the poor. Even if the visitor does not become a real martyr to this worthy cause, it requires at any rate great self-command to call, possibly at houses of ill-repute, and converse with people who are often coarse and vulgar. For these reasons it is very doubtful whether a woman teacher can or will decide to take this means. And yet the teacher must find out definitely all about the pupil if he wishes to have valid grounds for his proposal to place the child in an auxiliary school. But if you depend upon the information given by the mother in the school, you

have by no means any guaranty of its truth. For at first we scarcely realize how poverty, which often rules most cruelly in the families of the candidates for the auxiliary school, causes them to deceive and lie, and also how a certain pride and shame easily lead to false statements. If therefore visits to the home are impossible, and the mother's reports do not seem trustworthy, other sources must be sought. The sisters of charity, the overseers of the poor, and the information bureaus of the city poor and of the police administration must be called on for aid. The testimony of several trustworthy and experienced persons can to some extent help to complete the teacher's own judgments.

But compliance with this demand must always be upheld, namely: the teacher must judge for himself, and confirm by visits to the home, under what conditions the proposed auxiliary school pupil lives, what diseases he has had to combat, and what bodily injuries have influenced his abnormal development. In many cases the teacher's visits to the parent's home will confirm what he already suspected; in other cases he will discover entirely new signs, in the fateful stamp which has influenced the course of the pupil's childhood before his school days.

Realizing that it is exceptionally hard for a folk school teacher to follow all the paths leading to adequate research regarding child-nature, and definitely to answer the question, "What must we do in order to avoid unjustly transferring a pupil to the auxiliary school?" question sheets, observation blanks, forms of proposal, and admission blanks, have been prepared. They are to guide the teacher in his comprehensive study of the candidates for the auxiliary school. These question sheets are very variously arranged; almost every school uses a different one. The explanation of this diversity may lie not only in the individual opinions of the author, but also in the guiding principle. The question is, "Shall the doctor or the teacher plan such a sheet?" The physician, as is easily seen, will naturally consider some questions pertinent which the school man will not. As proof of this, some typical sheets are here given.

A.—Plan of the question sheet used at Frankfort on the Main.

Easter, 19__.

Residence _____
 Date of birth _____
 Pupil, No. _____ of class _____ in _____ school year.
 Parents _____ Vocation _____
 Home relations (name of guardian, if any) _____
 Number of the mother's miscarriages _____ Number of children _____
 Birth: Legitimate or illegitimate _____
 Inherited taint (diseases of the parents) _____
 Mental disorders—lung troubles—dipsomania—crime—suicide—syphilis _____

Brothers and sisters: Whether weak-minded, silly, epileptic, etc.-----
 Previous illnesses: Especially convulsions, paralysis, St. Vitus's dance, rickets,
 bladder trouble, fainting spells, etc.-----
 Defective senses: Cross-eyed — blind — deaf — lame — difficulties of speech, etc.

 Spiritual qualities: False — thievish — shy — restless — irritable — unsociable —
 dull — tearful, etc.-----
 Opinions of teachers regarding industry, progress, formation of ideas (ideas of
 number), reading, writing, etc.-----
 Was the child in any previous year recommended to the auxiliary school?

 Other remarks -----
 Rector ----- School physician -----

B.—List of candidates proposed for the auxiliary school at Frankfort on the Main, also the personal sheet of the auxiliary school.

Name in full -----
 Date and place of birth -----
 Religion -----
 Son ----- } of: (name of father or guardian) -----
 Daughter ----- } -----
 Residence -----, street -----, story -----
 Is house in front or rear of lot? -----
 Pupil of ----- school, member of ----- class, since -----
 Previously ----- year in -----
 Recommended to the auxiliary school (date) -----
 Recommendation repeated? -----
 Date of entrance to auxiliary school ----- in class -----
 Date of dismissal from the auxiliary school -----
 Cause -----
 Chosen occupation -----

INFORMATION REGARDING PARENTS, CONDITION OF THE CHILD WHILE ATTENDING THE
 REGULAR SCHOOL, AT THE TIME OF HIS ENTRANCE TO THE AUXILIARY SCHOOL, AND
 WHILE IN ATTENDANCE AT THIS SCHOOL FROM THE FIRST TO SIXTH YEAR.

1. Information regarding parents:

Birth, legitimate or illegitimate -----
 Is father still living? ----- Age at death -----
 Is mother still living? ----- Age at death -----
 Cause of death -----

2. Regarding brothers and sisters:

Are they feebly endowed? Pupils of the auxiliary school? Epileptic?
 Idiotic? Blind? Deaf? -----
 Number of brothers and sisters living ----- Ages -----
 Number of brothers and sisters dead ----- Ages at death -----
 Cause of death -----
 Number of miscarriages of the mother -----

3. Home conditions: Poverty, poor dwelling, broken family life, incompetency
 of father or mother to gain a livelihood -----

4. Inherited tendencies: Lung troubles, dipsomania, mental disorders, crime,
 intermarriage of relatives, suicide -----

5. Diseases which the candidate has had: Measles, scarlet fever, diphtheria, whooping cough, meningitis, rheumatism, paralysis, convulsions, St. Vitus's dance, fainting spells, bladder troubles, rickets, severe head wounds, accidents-----
6. Development: Learned to talk at ----- years of age; learned to walk at ----- years of age.
7. Diseases from which he still suffers: Headache, cough, indigestion, swelling of the glands, cutaneous eruptions, bed wetting, convulsions-----
8. Hearing: Hard of hearing, festering of the ears-----
9. Sight: Short-sighted, weak-sighted, cross-eyed, inflammation of the eyes, color blindness, quivering of the eyes-----
10. Speech organs and speech: Stuttering, stammering, lisping, malformation of the jawbone, irregular teeth, tonsils, thick tongue-----
11. Respiration: Sleeps with mouth open, difficulty in breathing through nostrils, shortness of breath-----
12. Physical deformities: Lameness, curvature, rupture, shape of head, left handed, chicken breasted-----
13. Physical conditions (see certificate of health).
14. Character and disposition: Serious, peevish, listless, sensitive, tearful, shy, timid, cheerful, passionate, companionable, cruel (tortures animals), disturbs the classes, restless, untidy, mendacious, thievish, excitable, slow, superficial, quarrelsome-----
15. Mental condition:
 - Memory: (a) In general -----
 - (b) In particular directions (number, form, words, color, locality)-----
 - Power of thinking, attention, power of apprehension, observation, mechanical adaptation (poetry, melody, multiplication table), impression made by mental effort, retention of ideas, formation of concepts (vague), power of judgment (speed, accuracy), imagination (excitable)-----
16. Notes and counsel of the physician (see accompanying certificate):
 - To be received in the auxiliary school-----
 - To be excused from certain subjects-----
17. Do the parents wish the child to enter the auxiliary school?----- Yes or No.
18. Result of the examination regarding his entrance into the auxiliary school-----

DEVELOPMENT OF THE CHILD IN KNOWLEDGE AND SKILL IN THE REGULAR SCHOOL IN SUMMER AND WINTER, IN THE AUXILIARY SCHOOL FROM THE FIRST TO SIXTH YEAR.

1. Religion: Idea, interest, knowledge and retention of passages from the Bible, stories, songs-----
2. Object lessons: Knowledge of things, interest in his observations, fables-----
3. German:
 - (a) Reading: Printed and written alphabet, connecting of sounds, syllables, and words, sentence reading, reading of connected pieces, German and Roman type, mechanical skill, intelligent reading, reproduction, typical mistakes in reading, tone of voice in speaking, slurring of sounds and syllables-----
 - (b) Spelling: Tracing of letters or words, copying, analysis of words, dictation, typical errors-----
4. Arithmetic: Series of numbers, how large numbers he can use, the primary operations, mechanical skill, oral and written arithmetic, memory for numbers, ability to apply rules to problems-----

5. Writing: Small letters or capitals, regularity of their formation.....
6. Singing: Hearing, sense of rhythm, memory for music, fondness for music...
7. Gymnastics: Strength, power of endurance, sociability in playing.....
8. History: Interest in persons and events and memory for them.....
9. Geography: Sense of locality, fundamental principles, map reading.....
10. Natural history: Behavior when looking at objects, relation between structure and function
11. Drawing: Net-line and free-hand drawing, exercises in measuring with the eye, neatness
12. Hand work: Kind, ability, interest
13. Conduct (legitimate reproofs or punishments)
14. Industry and attention: Home work, additional occupations.....
15. Absences: (a) Excused
- (b) Unexcused
- (c) On account of illness.....

C.—Question sheet of the Brussels auxiliary school.

Reasons for the examination of the child:

1. Inadequate or abnormal mental development.
2. Continual and notorious bad conduct. Inattention.
3. Three years behind in school training.
4. Serious difficulties of speech.

Documents which must accompany this form:

1. Report of child's school career.
2. Report regarding causes which led to the proposal that he be admitted.

This report must contain as detailed answers as possible to the following questions:

- (a) Are the parents in good health?
What is the state of their morals?
Do they drink?
- (b) Has the child been ill?
Has he shown no imperfection in the activity of his senses (as sight, hearing, feeling, muscle sense)?
Is he given to self-abuse?
In what branch of study has the child made greatest progress?
Is he attentive? idle? rude? bold? saucy?
Is his ill behavior continual or periodic?
Does he steal? lie? Is he boisterous?
- (c) To what intellectual or educative treatment has the child been subjected?

D.—Question sheet of the Leipzig school for mental defectives.^a

- (A) 1. How many children are there in the school who are evidently weak-minded?
2. How many children attend the school the first year and are not to be promoted from the lowest class at Easter?
3. How many children attend school the second year even, and can not be promoted at Easter from the lowest class?
4. How many still older children are there who are still in the lower classes?
5. How many of the children under 2, 3, and 4 are weak-minded?

^a From W. Reinke (op. cit.).

(B) In judging weak-minded children, the following points of view are the principal ones to keep in mind:

1. Can the child distinguish right from left and make movements in accordance with this distinction?
Does he know the colors?
2. What is the condition of the development of his power of speech? Can he articulate all sounds, connect the sounds properly in words, speak distinctly and connectedly, repeat a short sentence correctly, or does he leave out whole words in speaking a sentence, is the order of words in the sentence confused? Does he stammer or stutter?
3. Can he distinguish objects and representations of objects, and what ones? Can he say something about objects which are close at hand, follow a simple conversation, and also give information about things which are not present?
4. What knowledge has he gained at school? Does he know the alphabet; can he read words, does he know the letters of the different alphabets? Can he write letters and words correctly from memory, or can he only copy these mechanically, or can he not do even this correctly? How far can he count forward? Can he also count backward, and from what number? How many columns of figures can he add, how many subtract? Has he any idea of multiplication and division? To what number can he work out simple arithmetical problems in his head? To what number with the help of his fingers?
5. In disposition is he docile or stubborn and obstinate, good or ill natured, quiet or lively, companionable or unsociable?

E.—Admission form of the auxiliary school at Plauen.

It is proposed that _____, No. ____ of main register, pupil of ____ school,
be received into the auxiliary school.

N. B.—Given name to be underlined.

Date and place of birth.	When and where did he enter school?	How long has he been in this class?	How many times has he failed to be promoted?	Name and position of father, guardian.	Exact statement of his last place of residence.

Religion:

Of the father _____

Of the mother _____

Of the child _____

Vaccination scar _____

N. B.—Underline appropriate descriptive words and add anything important.

General impression: Mentally weak, very weak, imbecile. Dull, bright.

Disposition: Cheerful, tearful, changeable.

Character: Obliging, true, honest, kind, confidential, bold, eager, bashful, spiteful, disobedient, untruthful, dishonest, unsociable, timorous, idle, impudent, inclined to vagrancy.

Interest: Is it easy or difficult to excite? Does he show it strongly, weakly, or does it vary?

Does his interest in one object last for too long, too short a time?

What line does he prefer? _____ What does he neglect? _____

Uninterested, distracted.

Apprehension: Quick, transient, uncertain, slow, vague, definite.

Memory: Normal, weak, very weak. Intelligent, unintelligent observation.

Quick, slow in recalling ideas. Frequent confusion.

Speech: Normal, slow, rapid. Talks much, little, not at all, sensibly, unintelligently. Stammers, stutters.

Development: Child began to talk at ____ years of age; to walk at ____ years.

Movements: Gait ____; arm and hand movement ____; too hurried, clumsy; awkward, dextrous, left-handed.

Skill gained at school (N. B.—Underline with black ink the letters he can read in print; in red those which he can write):

1. Reading:

2. Writing: a o u e i—l m n r—h ch j—v f—s ss sch—ä ö ü—b d g—p t k—
x z—qu ng—ai äu au—ei eu—y—O Ö A Ä—G Q—S Sch R N
M—V W P Z U—T J—K F—L B—H E—D—X Y C.

3. Arithmetic:

How far can he count forward? _____

From what number can he count backward without leaving out a single number? _____

How far can he add $1+1$, etc.? _____

From what number on can he subtract 1? _____

What ideas of number has he? _____

What other operations of arithmetic has he mastered? _____

Parents' home:

Who looks after the child from day to day? _____

Has a change in bringing up taken place? _____

What was its nature? _____

What care is given to the child's body? _____

What to his education? _____

PHYSICAL.

Number of absences ____; excused ____; unexcused ____; in how many years of school? _____

Kept out of school on account of _____ an especially long time, namely, _____ weeks.

The child can not follow the instruction on account of: Frequent headaches, nausea, bowel trouble, general languor (falls asleep in class), sleeplessness, epileptic fits, dizziness, involuntary twitching of the muscles.

Shortsighted, cross-eyed, hard of hearing, chronic inflammation of the eyes, running from the ears (right, left), chronic nasal catarrh, swollen tonsils.

His meager ability can be traced back to: Inheritance, hard birth, a fall, fright, illness. He has formerly suffered from: Brain disease, rachitis, eclampsia, epileptic fits, measles, scarlet fever, diphtheria, inflammation of the lungs, whooping cough, persistent skin eruptions.

The child is the first, last, _____th; a twin.

Of _____ brothers and sisters still living _____ showed themselves weakly endowed at school; _____ not yet old enough to leave school; are behind their classes. Of _____ who have died _____ were untalented; _____ mentally diseased. They died at the age of _____ from _____

Of parents and other blood relatives _____ are not gifted; _____ suffer from tuberculosis of _____; from syphilis _____; from mental derangement _____; from alcoholism _____

Summary of the above mental defects _____
Plauen (date) _____

Director _____ Class teacher _____

[School stamp.]

F.—Admission blank of the auxiliary school at Halle.

No. ____ in main register.
It is proposed that _____ be received into the city
auxiliary school.

Born _____ as _____ legitimate child of _____ {dead.
still living.

In the care of _____, residence _____

Baptized _____, not baptized _____. Vaccinated _____, not vaccinated _____

Since _____ at school, _____ years in the primary class, and _____ years in
class next to the last.

Up to the present, _____ years in the _____ class of the {intermediate
primary } school
under class teacher _____

Remarks of the present school principal _____

Opinion of the principal and the physician of the auxiliary school _____

Decision of the city school superintendent regarding final admission _____

(N. B.—Questions 1 to 3 following are to be answered after visiting the home. Questions 4 and 5 are to be answered at three different periods in the year. On completing each series of observations, the answers are to be presented for examination to the school principal.)

Points of view from which the observations are to be made:

1. What has been learned regarding the parents? (Conditions of life, what care do they take of the child? _____. No. of visits to the home _____.)
2. What reports do the parents give regarding the child? (Illnesses, accidents _____. No. of visits _____.)
3. What physical defects are noticeable, especially in the organs of sense and in the movements of the muscles? _____

Observations.	To last week before summer holidays.	To December 1.	To February 1.
4. Has the mental development in general been unsatisfactory? ..			
(a) Speech fluent or defective.			
(b) Participation and interest in the lessons			
Weakness or unsteadiness of attention			
Weakness of memory			
(c) Strikingly good or bad characteristics			
How does school work affect him?			
5. Condition of his school work			
In what subjects is he backward?			
How far has he gone in arithmetic, reading, and writing? ..			

A comparison of these sheets brings to our notice the following facts: Since in the first place schoolmen have to answer these printed questions, they must be principally of a psychological and pedagogical nature. At the same time the questions must be so stated that they will cause repeated observations to be made, and also so that they may be answered in the briefest possible way. Finally, on looking them over, not only the one who has answered them, but any reader, should be enabled to get at a glance a view of the development of the child before his school years.

The question sheet used at Halle, which has been worked out by the auxiliary school staff and myself, and which has been tested for several years, is put into the hands of the teachers of the lowest

classes in the primary and intermediate schools at the beginning of each school year. Then, too, their observations must begin. If the child does not seem normal to the teacher, data regarding him are to be entered upon the front page. Questions 1 to 3, on the inside page, are to be answered only after visits to the home, and 4 and 5 at three different periods; the entries are to be presented to the school principal for examination at the close of each series of observations. Shortly before Easter the admission applications of all the schools concerned which have been approved by the school principals are submitted to the director of the city school administration, who in special cases seeks the opinion of the physician and the principal of the auxiliary school, and only then delivers the final decision regarding the admission of a child into the auxiliary school. Such a method of procedure, though it may perhaps seem formal, compels careful and repeated observation of a pupil who appears to be abnormal, and generally it prevents his overhasty dismissal from the regular school.

Ordinarily about 50 application forms are presented every year to the head of the city school administration for his decision. Of these, after consultation with the principal of the auxiliary school, generally 20 or 30 are sent back with the decision "to remain in the folk school," or "to be proposed again next year." Forms with such remarks are naturally not welcomed by the folk school teacher. He must continue to put up patiently with the pupil who is such a burden to him, and of whom the school principal, too, perhaps, wanted to rid him.

Granted that 20 to 30 application forms come back to the different school principals from the president of the school administration, with the certificate of transfer to the auxiliary school, the pupils so marked are removed from their respective schools at Easter, and toward the end of March are given over to the principal of the auxiliary school. On the basis of the forms submitted, a preliminary assignment of the children to the classes of the auxiliary school may be made, so that they may find their places after the Easter holidays.

Having thus described the customary admission procedure at Halle, we must now note the usual practice in the folk schools of Mannheim. This practice must be mentioned here, because—as I know from my own observation—the admission of candidates proceeds under even more difficult circumstances than at Halle.

In the year 1899 the city school superintendent of Mannheim, Doctor Sickinger, made an attempt to classify the pupils of the folk school according to their abilities, and to use the great number of parallel classes of each grade in forming instruction groups having each an individual character. As a result, in the school as a whole,

there are different instruction routes, having different plans of studies. In fact, three kinds of classes may be distinguished, as follows:

- 1. Classes for pupils capable of doing normal work, who at the end of seven school years would be able to reach the highest class, and who form the advanced department having the regular eight grades.
- 2. For those children who, as a result of inadequate ability, can not be promoted to the next class, of which they would form the "dregs" and "ballast," a special division of the school, aiming to do simpler work, is organized.

This division of the school, with its special classes, which are also called "repeating" or "furthering" classes, naturally does not let its pupils advance as far as the normal pupils; for it a special goal must be set, when its work shall be declared finished. Therefore the last years of these special classes are called "finishing" classes, too. In them (in the lower grades it would still be possible for pupils to return to the regular classes) the teacher who is inclined to make psychological observations finds abundant opportunity to individualize. For the classes are but small (30), and "successive" instruction in the section allows the teacher really to know his pupil and to reawaken in him his desire for work, which may almost have disappeared. For this purpose (i. e., successive instruction) the pupils are divided into two sections; in one the weaker pupils are placed, in the other the stronger; part of their lessons are given in common, part separately. So section A and section B receive thirteen hours' instruction in common (3 religion + 7 German + 2 arithmetic + 1 singing); section A has 6½ hours (4½ German + 2 arithmetic) of separate instruction, and section B a similar amount. One section has a lesson the first hour three days a week, the other section on the other three days. The teacher of the regular school division does not transfer his pupils to these special classes, which help individualization so much, until he has filled out a transfer card of the following form:

FOLK SCHOOL AT MANNHEIM—SPECIAL CLASSES.

Educational progress of the child in the system of special classes.			
When ?		Whither ?	
School year.	Date.	School division.	Special class.
19.....			
19.....			
19.....			
19.....			
19.....			
19.....			
19.....			
19.....			
19.....			
19.....			
19.....			
19.....			

TRANSFER CARD.
For transferal to a class.
School year: 19.. to 19..
School division:
At present in class.
Present teacher:

1. Personal history of the child.

Name of child.....
 Date of birth.....
 Place of birth.....
 Religion.....
 Name of father or guardian.....
 Position of father or guardian.....
 Parents' residence.....

2. Home conditions of the child.

Are both parents still living?.....
 Has it a stepfather, stepmother, only a father, only a mother; is it an orphan,
 and under some one's care?.....
 Is its education and care neglected?.....

3. Previous school attendance.

Has it attended only this school?.....
 Did it come from some other place? (from what school, class, and in what school
 year was it?).....
 Was its attendance in any class irregular? (Why?).....

4. The child's backwardness.

In what classes did it remain more than one year? (State briefly in what sub-
 jects its work was unsatisfactory.).....

5. Reason for its backwardness.

On account of lack of talent?.....
 On account of lack of application?.....
 Other causes (illness, transfer, home conditions).....

6. Former diseases and accidents.

Fits? Dizziness? St. Vitus's dance? Brain troubles? Head injuries? Rickets?
 Diphtheria? Measles? Scarlet fever? Whooping cough? etc.....

7. Physical anomalies and signs of degeneration.

Signs of paralysis? Headache? Speech? Hearing? Eyesight? Organs of
 smell? Swelling of glands? Trembling and twitching of the muscles? Curva-
 ture of the spine? Malformation of the limbs? Chronic diseases? etc.....

8. Psychological peculiarities.

Cleanly? Attentive? Good willed? Sociable? Mendacious? Thievish? Dull?
 Excitable? Irritable? Sensitive? Passionate? Whimsical? Bashful?
 Lazy? Imaginative? Forgetful? Superficial? Mean? etc.....

9. Special inclinations and abilities.

Singing? Writing? Drawing? Arithmetic? Hand work? etc.....

10. *Grade of school work reached.^a*

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.
School year	19—	19—	19—	19—	19—	19—	19—	19—
Class								
Teacher								
Number of pupils								
Location								
Industry								
Conduct								
German								
Arithmetic								

^a The grade which the child reached in all his school work is to be entered here. This is therefore a certificate for the past school years as well as for the future. For the past years the entry is made at the time of the child's transfer to the special class; for the future, at the conclusion of the school year. Should he return to a regular class or leave the school, a note is to be made of his leaving certificate; if, on the contrary, he merely changes to another special class, no entry is made to that effect.

3. If it happens that a child in the lower "repeating" classes can not be benefited at all because he is very meagerly endowed mentally, he is transferred, with the cooperation of the school physician, to an auxiliary school class, of which in the school year 1904-5 there were four in existence, with a total of 67 children. From this small number of classes we may conclude that the Mannheim method of procedure leaves a considerable number of pupils in the repeating classes in the regular school who at Halle, and probably in other cities, would have been transferred to the auxiliary schools without hesitation.

The auxiliary school classes at Mannheim, therefore, are attended by children who show very inadequate mental development; and yet we must not assert that idiots are sent there. It seems to me that the school organization at Mannheim tends to change the whole procedure of admission to the auxiliary school classes which up to this time has been customary. Perhaps the Mannheim method is the first to take into the auxiliary school only those pupils who belong exclusively there, and the pursuance of it has the same result as formerly in the case of institutions for idiots; for when the auxiliary schools were founded the institutions for idiots lost (to those schools) a number of their inmates who were capable of being educated—those who were not the worst, not to call them "show pupils." Now, according to the Mannheim plan, the auxiliary schools are not to admit those pupils who, to be sure, are inferior, but whose minds, which up to this time have been benumbed by all kinds of limitations, can still be awakened by individual treatment according to

psychological principles. Under this treatment they are still to be helped to accomplish something in a simplified folk school. The future will prove whether the Mannheim course of procedure will have a lasting influence upon that which has existed up to the present. At any rate, the question is worthy of our most careful consideration, for admission to the auxiliary school can scarcely be too carefully guarded. Just as we must avoid having children sent to it who are suffering from a higher grade of imbecility or from idiocy, who are blind, deaf-mutes, or morally depraved, so we must also refuse to admit those who have been kept back only by reason of unfavorable school conditions or on account of illness, and yet are not to be called mentally subnormal.

Let, then, admission be according to the plan used either at Halle or at Mannheim; well for those children set apart if, while still at the regular school, they did not frequently hear it said, "Oh, in the auxiliary school, with the stupid children, you don't have to learn anything!" If the auxiliary school and its work have hitherto been treated with scorn, if even school people regard it as a school Siberia, we can understand the disfavor with which it is viewed by the children and their parents. Though many parents have a very good understanding of what the auxiliary school may mean for their children, as well as for themselves, yet we can not expect parents in general to appreciate its value. Therefore we need not be surprised if many of them object to their children being placed in the auxiliary school. Parental pride, along with misunderstanding, thwarts a great deal of the school work. And when the school raises doubts and suspicions as to the parental darlings being altogether "sound in their minds," and in addition to this neighbors speak now and again of a "dunce school" or "mad school," to which they wouldn't want to intrust their children, the best-intentioned counsels of school people and physicians are of no avail; vanity and false shame prevent them from seeing the matter in its true light. Therefore it is advisable to ask the parents' consent before the children are finally admitted to the school, for as yet they can not be forced to send them to such a school. The stubborn opposition of some parents makes us wish, however, that there might be laws passed which would give over to the auxiliary school, even against the will of the parents, such children as are known to be meagerly endowed. To this end the fourth session of the German Auxiliary School Association (1903) worked faithfully. Among other things, the discussion resulted in the following declaration: "Compulsion should be used only when parents stubbornly refuse to allow their children to enter the auxiliary school, and can not prove that their education is being sufficiently cared for in other ways." Of course compulsion can be

used only when perfectly clear and written proof can be given of the mental deficiency of the child.

Now, this should be sufficiently proved by the question and transfer sheets, when these are conscientiously filled out. If in spite of these sheets there should still be difficulty, the authorities appealed to must then decide on the basis of the sheets handed in to them. To prevent further cases of this kind the authorities (for instance, the school supervisors of the county or district) must make a special regulation by which the following right is granted to the larger communities: Upon the fulfillment of certain definite conditions their agents may command and enforce compulsory entrance to the auxiliary school.

That there may be a uniform ruling in regard to this important matter, all school directors who desire a satisfactory solution of the problem should meet together and ask the central authorities to issue an order which shall be valid for one whole territorial division. Perhaps the current year will bring a much-desired success to the efforts which the president of the auxiliary school association has undertaken to make before the authorities concerned. The admission procedure would then be given a firm basis and much reflection and painstaking on the part of the school people and physicians would be followed by good results.

It would, however, be declaring that the popular common practice is the only one if we were to say that any child should be admitted to the auxiliary school only after he had remained to no purpose one year, or even two years, in the folk school. That experience may be valuable which teaches that the school period offers the best opportunity to recognize a child's normality or abnormality. But must this long testing time be first passed in all cases before a decision can be reached to transfer a child to the auxiliary school? Other experience teaches that by the time a child reaches the age of compulsory school attendance a diagnosis of his abnormal development can be made which will be more or less accurate. Naturally the decision rests more in the hands of the physician than in those of the educator. Many children show sure signs of defective mental development very early. To send these defectives to the folk school when a special institution is at hand for them would be doing them a great injustice. From their first school days they belong in the auxiliary school. If this decision is made and carried out, such an auxiliary school pupil has a great advantage in his school life over that one who must first endure a long martyrdom in the folk school. For the sake of this advantage this second method of admission to the auxiliary school must be called practicable and is to be recommended.

IV.—THE PARENTS AND THE WHOLE ENVIRONMENT OF AUXILIARY SCHOOL PUPILS BEFORE AND DURING THE SCHOOL PERIOD.

Taking it for granted that the newly admitted pupils remain in the auxiliary school without interference on the part of the parents, what work is then to be done? For the auxiliary school people the unceasing work of observing the body and the soul of the new pupils begins. But whoever would really know his pupils must first become acquainted with their parents and their surroundings.

A twofold effort must be made in order to be able to understand the parents. In the first place, the auxiliary school principal should send to the official information bureau of the city poor administration a list of the new pupils, with the personal record of each as shown in the admission blanks, with the request that from its records a statement be prepared regarding the character of the parents in question. On the whole, this confidential information may be accepted as true. Two reports may serve as examples:

1. N. N. (dates of birth of parents and children are here given) was punished in 1888 with two weeks' imprisonment on account of injury to the person; in 1899 with one day imprisonment for fraud; in 1901 with one day in confinement for disorderly conduct; his reputation is bad. He associates with a married woman who is living apart from her husband, from which alliance there is a child. The child is idiotic and has been placed in the asylum at Neinstedter. His wife has a good reputation; she has been suffering for a long time from cancer of the breast. The child's surroundings are as bad as possible.

2. N. N. (dates of birth and vocations of parents and children are given) has frequently been lightly punished on account of transgressions. Since 1902 he has been in the insane asylum at Alt-Scherbitz as undoubtedly crazy. His wife was punished in 1882 for infringement of police regulations; otherwise she is of good repute.

Most of the parents are in hard circumstances. In spite of this, however, in great part they manage honestly to keep their heads above water, as well as those of their often numerous children, with or without the aid of public and private benevolence. Others, however, and of these there is unfortunately no small number, have in various ways come into too close touch with the courts, or are alcohol fiends who hate work and do not lead a model family life.

These facts ascertained, the second effort is made. The mothers or guardians of the children are invited by letter to confer with the school principal at his office. To be sure, there are always some who do not heed such an invitation, but the majority of the mothers appear and also find time for conversation. This conference, at which the class teacher is generally present too, is based on the following definite printed questions:

Record book No.	Surname and given name of the child.	The parents of the child. (Information concerning illnesses, conduct of life, desire for drink, consanguinity, significant difference in age, death, cause of death, etc.)	The children of these parents.				Mental diseases, epilepsy, and nervous disorders in the kinsmen of the parents. (Statement of the degree of relationship and kind of disease.)	Significant occurrences at birth.	Developmental disturbances in the first year of life. (When did he learn to walk, speak? Irregularities in teeth, etc.)	Illnesses before school age, and the course of these. (Rickets, scrofula, convulsions, brain fever, scarlet fever, diphtheria, etc.)	Serious accidents, especially injury to the head, by kick, by being struck, or by a fall.	
			Name.	Sex.	Health condition, or cause of death and a statement of the age attained.	What is the order of birth of this child?						
1												

Record book No.	Physical defects (congenital or acquired through illness or accidents).										11	12	13
	Congenital malformations of the face, palate, abnormally formed ears or limbs, insufficient or superfluous number of limbs, defects of sense organs, hydrocephalus, paralysis, etc.)	Imperfections of the body (curvature of the spine, lameness, convulsive movements, abnormal formation of the skull or limbs, etc.).	Natural state of the skin (whether moist, dry, flabby, normally sensitive to external stimulation, bad smelling secretions, hairy).	Defects—				(d) Of the organs of speech (natural state of the lips, teeth, tongue, palate; enlargement of tonsils, abnormal growths).					
(a) Of the eyes (squint, lid paralysis, defects of cornea and iris, quivering, unequal size of pupils, near and weak sightedness).				(b) Of the ears (discharges, weakened hearing).	(c) Of the nose (closing of air passages, purulent discharges, etc.).	(d) Of the organs of speech (natural state of the lips, teeth, tongue, palate; enlargement of tonsils, abnormal growths).							

Bringing together, then, the results of these two efforts, the teacher has a working basis and may proceed to become better acquainted with the child who is to be subjected to a pedagogical curative treatment. When mothers do not respond to the friendly invitation of the school principal this basis is built up much more slowly, and the teacher in experimenting and feeling his way must depend upon chance. In Halle I have had quite satisfactory results in my efforts. And if I had on one or another occasion parents before me who remained silent regarding important facts of their life and wished to put themselves in a more favorable light, upon finding that I had got my bearings from the official records they became more communicative and made their statements correspond more closely to the truth. As for the rest, I seldom met boldness or excessive frankness. Many a fact regarding the home life was told with a heavy heart or merely hinted at. Often in deep sympathy and with a certain appreciation of the persons being questioned, I have anticipated answers. Many of the mothers had entered a hard school of life when they married, but they had struggled like heroes against the daily hardships of their existence. Repeatedly at the close of my questions I have had the desire to help and encourage with more than words.

That the information won in these conferences through confidence is to be treated as sacred goes without saying. I again cite two cases.^a

1. Agnes N. is the stepdaughter of a turner. Her real father, a drunkard who was often punished, died of fits. The mother married another drunkard, from whom she separated at the end of four years. At the time Agnes entered the auxiliary school her stepfather was serving out in prison a four months' sentence for attempted robbery. Before this he had often appeared in court on account of disorderly conduct, begging, and injury to persons. The child's mother, although as yet unpunished, is by no means irreproachable in her manner of living, according to the opinion of the authorities. Her answers to my questions, however, did not give the impression of coarseness or cynicism. She has given birth in wedlock to five children, the first three of whom died of convulsions while young. The youngest child, Agnes N., did not learn to talk and walk till the age of four. She has had the measles and evidently has scrofula. Convulsions, with which the child was formerly more afflicted than at present, have left behind a twitching of the head. Her speech is also faulty.

2. Otto and Paul M., brothers. Their father, an occasional laborer, died of tuberculosis. Of twelve children (Otto and Paul being the ninth and tenth) the mother lost five, partly from convulsions, partly from lack of vital energy. It is to be feared that the two youngest children, both girls, will some time have to be sent to the auxiliary school. The birth of the two boys named was instrumental; they suffered greatly while teething, also from measles. Their education has been unusually neglected, because the mother has had to go to work daily. One notices at once a difficulty of speech in the one boy, and of walking in the other. Poverty, with the burden of the sickly father, has played a great part in the abnormal mental development of the two boys.

^a I acknowledge the help of the class teachers in completing the details of these cases, which are later characterized still further.

Many other statements of parents might be cited here in detail. You hear of marriages between near blood relations, of striking differences of age, or of nervous diseases in the parents' relatives. Or the mother tells of all kinds of serious accidents, or of trouble during her period of pregnancy. Sometimes she can not give the number of births exactly, as when there are something more than a dozen or fifteen. It is striking how low the vital energy of such all too numerous offspring is; and even when really and fully developed they are in many ways a prey to all kinds of developmental and infectious diseases. In large families, where the care of the children is faulty, falling out of bed, downstairs, or out of a carriage often plays a fateful part. These accidents often explain clearly the more or less abnormal development of the child. Finally, that alcohol and syphilis leave their impression on the child mind can be suspected rather than proven by the layman.

All of these results of examination, combined with proofs of external bodily failings and defects, can naturally not be established regarding an auxiliary pupil at once. But this or that disclosure from the record gives cause enough for the continuance of observation, in order that the proper vantage ground may be won for an individual treatment during the auxiliary school period.

Foremost among the methods of securing the needed data are the visits to the home, which can not be too strongly recommended, in the first place, to the folk school teacher. These visits have increased value when it is impossible to consult with the mother at the school. How many questions the teacher now has on the end of his tongue! And yet how careful he must be not to appear as a secret-service policeman or detective. It requires a great deal of tact to ask the right questions at the right time. But experience soon teaches how to find out the necessary details. Among these, the time of going to bed and getting up must be ascertained; also whether the child has regular nourishment and whether alcohol plays a part in it; further, what work the child has to do. Not less important are the facts regarding his sleeping conditions.

All of these questions will perhaps not be needed in every family. Experience and observation must suggest the appropriate questions to the teacher. For example, the exceptionally languid appearance of a pupil will lead to observations regarding his sleeping conditions. The teacher's visit to the home reveals two facts: First, the child is kept at work folding paper during the hours he is free from school. (This is also the parent's business.) Instead, then, of recuperating his energies in the fresh air, he has to sit in a damp room and try to earn money. Secondly, the 12-year-old boy has to share his scanty bed with a 10-year-old sister and an elder brother.

The report of the observant, zealous teacher causes a general questioning in the auxiliary school regarding outside work and conditions for sleeping. This questioning finally broadens out into a research regarding the following conditions: Does the child sleep alone in the bed (age and sex of his bedfellows)? How many persons sleep in one room? Is there an available separate bedroom? Does he see his father before school hours? Does his mother prepare a warm drink for him for breakfast? Is outside work done before or after school hours? What time does he go to bed? Get up?

The resulting answers, indefinite and unreliable as some of them always are, throw a certain light on the so-called environment of our auxiliary school pupils fully sufficient to place the work of the auxiliary school teacher under the head of "home missions of a practical Christianity." But a person must have looked into this environment before he can begin the work in a personal and, therefore, successful manner.

V.—HEALTH CONDITIONS OF AUXILIARY SCHOOL PUPILS.

About the time that we are trying to find out the home conditions of the pupils before they entered the auxiliary school, we must determine also their physical development. This is carried on with the help of the auxiliary school physician. This is not the place to discuss the necessity for a school physician. The question here is to show the position and duties of the physician in the auxiliary school. In Halle we were persuaded that such a physician was necessary, although the numerous polyclinics of the university had rendered service in many ways for years and could still do so. The work of the auxiliary school physician, who was appointed four years ago, is regulated by an order drawn up by me and approved by the municipal council. It reads as follows:

THE DUTIES OF THE AUXILIARY SCHOOL PHYSICIAN IN HALLE.

1. The school physician must watch over the condition of the pupils' health as well as the hygienic conditions in the school.
2. A physical examination of all children entering the auxiliary school is to be made as soon as possible after their entrance, at most not later than three weeks thereafter. This examination is to be repeated every quarter.
3. The results of the examination are entered on a printed form of health record, which accompanies the child from class to class until he leaves the school. If a child needs special medical treatment, a note is made to that effect upon his record, and it is reported to the principal. This health record, when filled out and provided with a number corresponding to the number in the register, is placed in the principal's office, where it may be consulted by the teachers or the physician of the auxiliary school.

4. In addition to these periodic examinations, the school physician must make weekly visits to the school. The teachers are to be informed of his presence there by the principal, and must then present their observations to him, especially those which are of such a nature as to give rise to medical advice. The hours for consultation are decided upon by the principal and the physician.

5. The school physician does not treat the pupils himself; on the contrary, the parents are to be informed by printed notices, which must bear also the signature of the principal, that the child should be placed at once under the care of a private physician or sent to a polyclinic.

6. Whenever the physician's advice has to do with the temporary exclusion of pupils from school, or limiting their hours of study, or the assignment of special seats to them, or a resort to curative pedagogical measures, he must arrange the matter with the principal of the school in order to assure compliance with his instructions.

7. At the end of every school year, the school physician, after conferring with the principal, must present a report to the city council in which he is to give a short résumé of his medical supervision, pointing out any special cases and successful means employed.

8. In case the school physician is prevented from visiting the school for more than a week, the city council is to be promptly informed of the fact and a suitable substitute appointed. Three months' notice must be given before the contract with the council can be annulled.

9. The council retains the right to change or extend these duties, with the consent of the school board.

In accordance with this order, some time during the year all the pupils are examined by the school physician in the presence of the class teacher. The examination may take place in the principal's office or in some unoccupied class room. The results of the medical examination are entered in a specially prepared health record, which is made use of throughout the whole school course. It is thus arranged:

HEALTH RECORD.

For _____ son, daughter
 of _____
 Born (date) _____
 Vaccinated _____
 Vaccinated second time _____
 In the _____ school since _____, 19__

EXPLANATION OF THE FORM.

Columns 1, 3, 4, 9, and 10 and the head of the sheet are to be filled in by the teacher, the rest by the physician.

Columns 3 and 4 are to be filled in every half year. (Correct to a half centimeter and a quarter kilogram, respectively.)

The other columns are to be filled in by the physician when the pupil enters the school (columns 5 and 8 only when it seems specially necessary), but subsequently only when changes in the child are noticed.

In column 2, for perfect health "good" is to be written; if there is pronounced tendency to disease or chronic diseases, write "bad;" for other conditions write "medium."

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Class and year.	General constitution.	Height in cm.	Weight in kg.	Chest measure.	(a) Breast, abdomen. (b) Spinal column, extremities. (c) Skin diseases (parasites).	(a) Eyes, keenness of vision. (b) Ears, hearing. (c) Mouth, nose, teeth, speech.	Comments of the physician. Suggestions for treatment in school. Signs of disease.	Communications sent to the parents on—	Comments of the teachers.

If a child is in such a condition of health that medical treatment seems necessary, the principal of the school informs the parents of the fact. The following form of notice, usually sent by mail, has always had very satisfactory results:

By order of the city authorities an examination of your child _____ was made. It was found that he is suffering from _____. For the health of the child, as well as for the good of the school, it is very essential that _____

Halle, (date) _____, 190__.

To _____.

_____,
Rector.

With very few exceptions the parents have carried out the physician's suggestions, and the children in question have been placed in clinical institutions or under other medical treatment.

In the course of a whole school year the school physician collects a large amount of experience of interest to him and to the public. This experience he condenses into an official yearly report; one of these reports has been published in a daily newspaper in Halle, and now, with the consent of the author, I quote from it the following:

In the two lower classes of the auxiliary school there were 47 pupils from 7 to 9 years of age. Of these, 21, or about 45 per cent, were in poor health, and only 5, or about 10 per cent, were in perfect health. The children from 11 to 14 years of age showed the proportion reversed. The same result appeared when those children were grouped together whose bodily condition could be called perfect. While only 2 of the 47 younger children possessed no constitutional or organic defects, those in the last school year showed the proportion of 13 out of 21.

An especially convincing statement regarding the physical defects of these auxiliary school pupils is found in the following summary:

On the whole, only 57 of the 215 children who were in attendance in the auxiliary school at Halle during the year 1901 can be said to be free from defects, even if in our definition of perfect we do not consider trivial defects, such as slight difficulties of speech, abnormalities or diseases of the teeth, slight nervous troubles, etc.

In the school year 1903-4 the results showed a still smaller number. Out of 209 children only 11 boys and 15 girls were in a perfect general condition.

Exact measuring and weighing give a clear insight into the faulty development of the body. For measuring height a simple but very useful apparatus has been placed at the disposal of the school physician by the city authorities; it reminds one forcibly of what goes on at a mustering of soldiers. Quickly to determine the weight of the body a scale (upon which the child sits) with a sliding weight is used. With this apparatus it was discovered that of 47 auxiliary school pupils from 7 to 9 years of age 30 fell below the average height (as given by Schmid-Monnard for example) and 31 below the average weight. Only a few reached this average and a still smaller number exceeded it. The report for the year 1903-4 showed that in height 19 boys out of 105 exceeded the average, 30 reached it, and 56 fell below it, while among 104 girls 9 exceeded it, 33 reached it, and 62 fell below it. Of 105 boys 24 exceeded the average weight, 31 reached it, and 50 fell below, while of 104 girls 9 exceeded it, 45 reached it, and 50 fell below it. Similarly small numbers were noted in connection with the chest measure.

While these data can serve only as a basis of comparison and give hints as to a certain connection between mental and physical deficiencies, the following facts are generally of direct service to the pupil himself. The medical examination of the body and its separate parts sometimes reveals diseases about which the parents know nothing. Often, also, suspicions of the teacher, who in his daily intercourse with the pupil can of course note any striking change, are confirmed. In most such cases advice can then be given and often a permanent cure effected.

It was of great consequence that in stubborn cases the school physician could be helped by other city physicians. Various specialists were so deeply interested in the auxiliary school that they placed their knowledge and their art at the disposal of the little patients in the most unselfish way. How often, for example, was a busy oculist called on for aid, and he never refused our request. As a result of his examinations a great many of the pupils were provided with glasses, the cost of which was borne by the city poor administration. It was with great satisfaction that we noted decided progress in the mental development of such pupils. But an ear and nose specialist showed his benevolent spirit, too. In how many cases are swollen tonsils and adenoid growths connected with the pupil's languor or dullness! The researches of M. Bresgens and others have aroused the hope that certain operations upon the tonsils and nose will be able to awaken the slumbering mind of the child. And in the office of the principal at Halle there is a picture which shows types of pupils "before the operation" and "after the operation," in order to illustrate the surprisingly good results of such operations.

Unfortunately, however, one wish, shared by parents and teacher alike, is not realizable—that is, that by the removal of the swollen

tonsils and the adenoid growths every auxiliary school pupil might be restored to the regular school. Unless these pathological phenomena exclude pathological changes or defects in the central nervous system, we can not count on the improvement of the mental powers. But very often, at least, such operations relieve or do away with annoying headaches, nasal speech, or troublesome hardness of hearing, as well as aversion or inability to follow a definite line of work in the school; and so the services of the ear and nose specialist may be of great value to the auxiliary school pupils.

Since the auxiliary school physician most frequently meets with nerve diseases, from abnormal excitability to the most serious phases of brain troubles, it is highly necessary that he should study deeply and carefully all neurological sciences and strive after the skill in diagnosis possessed by a Ziehen or an Oppenheim. On account of the recognized difficulty of accurate diagnosis and the number of forms of nervous troubles, it is very desirable for the school physician to have the aid of a specialist in this department. At Halle we were very fortunate in this regard. A university professor helped the school physician in his examinations and consented to treat children afflicted with paralysis, epilepsy, or St. Vitus's dance.

Up to this time no dentist has been definitely connected with the school. But the children's teeth, as well as their eyes, noses, and ears, should be carefully examined. What suprisingly bad conditions are revealed by the scrutiny of the teeth alone! It is well known how important healthy teeth are for digestion as well as for speech, and therefore it is necessarily true that the dentist, too, can find in the auxiliary school a rich field for the exercise of his benevolence.

Whenever the services of a specialist were required by the auxiliary school, it was taken for granted that, above all, humanity and mercy should spur him on to help us. But with this mercy there must be no inconsiderate desire for research which considers the auxiliary school solely as a rich field for scientific observation and study.

It is easy to see that, in addition to his many-sided professional assistance, the physician is in other ways a blessing to the auxiliary school. By his friendly counsel many improper foods and wrong ways of treating the children have been abolished from the home. In various ways the pupils' school work can be made easier, at his suggestion. The united efforts of principal and physician have also repeatedly succeeded in placing in hospitals or nurseries children who were very delicate or in need of special care, or sometimes in placing them in better surroundings in vacation colonies, and thus making them more capable of resisting the attacks of diseases.

Perhaps more cities with forests in the vicinity will take up the idea which has been put into practice most successfully at Charlott-

tenburg, viz, to give lessons in the woods, not merely to individual pupils who need recreation, but to whole classes of the auxiliary school a week at a time. The school physician will certainly consent to the temporary removal of the children to the forest.

From the foregoing statements the duties of the auxiliary school physician can easily be deduced, as well as the number of demands to be made upon him, and his relation to the principal and the teachers. In the main, the physician has to help and advise both the parents and the teachers. To be sure, the latter will often be able to help the physician by their counsel, and in saying this I have in mind not only suspicions of diseases, but also psychological observations regarding the talent and mental ability of the pupils. Every prudent physician will therefore be willing to follow any suggestion made by the principal to attend teachers' meetings or class instruction in order to test his opinions in the light of the opinions of practical school people. In this way many a prejudice can be removed from both sides. If from the start the auxiliary school physician takes the position outlined by Görke, that "the physician must continually help and control the teacher," he is making pretensions which can only do injury to a good cause.

Of course the authorities will intrust an auxiliary school only to a physician who has shown an interest either in school hygiene or child study. But it is often very hard to find an experienced physician who is willing to accept the position of auxiliary school physician; consequently the auxiliary school physicians are mostly younger men. Should these have had as much preparation for their calling as the president of the German Society for School Hygiene requires of a physician for the regular school? Professor Griesbach's requirement is as follows: To be a school physician a person should know the human body accurately and have spent considerable time in a hygienic laboratory—should be a medical man who, on examination, shows exceptionally thorough knowledge of the principles of hygiene. The school physician should also attend pedagogical lectures, and in case he is to teach in higher schools, seminaries, Oberrealschulen, and Gymnasien, he must give specimen lessons, just as every candidate for the teacher's certificate must do. "A school physician who, besides being an able medical man, is also qualified to teach medicine, can and will be of great service to a school in both a pedagogical and a medical way, and will be able to exert a very beneficial influence over the students."

Griesbach very properly lays great stress upon the physician's knowledge of hygiene, but the auxiliary school physician will have to show special ability in psychology and psychiatry, too. However, with a knowledge of pedagogy we could very well dispense, for if it can be only superficial the physician brings upon himself, from the

start, a kind of odium which can help him very little in his position. Rather let the auxiliary school doctor be a physician, and a first-class one at that. No one will question the many-sidedness of his training or regard his duties as of secondary importance. Physician and teaching staff in the auxiliary school at Halle have never thought of comparing the relative values of their work. As soon as the physician realizes that the teacher's highest aim is to better the physical as well as the mental condition of the pupils, he will co-operate straightway in the attainment of this aim. The result of this association will be that the teacher will recognize in the physician a necessary link in the chain of common medical and pedagogical efforts being made. And in this way, in my opinion, the duties and position of the physician in an auxiliary school of one of our larger cities should be conceived.

Should it, on the other hand, be necessary for the auxiliary school physician to give advice and instruction to the school principal with regard to length of recitations, the number and use to be made of intermissions, the order of subjects in the daily programme, etc.? It is to be supposed that all such hygienic requirements are already commonly looked after at these schools. On looking into the real working of the school he will soon see how the matter stands. Sometimes, as an expert in school hygiene, he finds another kind of important work. Suppose a city community is short of funds. It declares that a certain room is good enough to be used for the auxiliary classes. Now, the teacher considers this room entirely unsuitable for many reasons. If the physician makes a statement that he agrees with the teacher, or if he makes a report in professional terms to the health commissioners in case of the larger cities, for example, his word has often more weight than that of the schoolman. In his professional capacity he can accomplish easily what the layman could never succeed in doing.

Therefore it is evident that if physician and teacher have set up the good of the pupils and the more complete development of the auxiliary school as their aim, they will easily find the direction in which the duties of each one should lead.

VI.—THE PUPILS OF THE AUXILIARY SCHOOL AND THEIR CHARACTERIZATION.

The teacher of the regular school, especially if he meets his pupils only as their instructor, probably in all cases does not worry very much about the questions: "How does the material of instruction presented affect the pupil, and what interest does he take in his school work?" If he would fully answer these questions, he would have to

pass upon each pupil in the class separately, or as we say, individualize him. But to do this the teacher, to begin with, must be psychologically minded, as Altenburg has set forth so convincingly. The high ideals of the teacher can be all too easily shattered by the great amount of subject-matter to be covered and the excessive size of the classes assigned to him, and he is forced to make continual compromises. He soon accustoms himself to a certain routine, treats his subjects in a most mechanical way, but is adept at showing results which satisfy the lay authorities. As circumstances in general make the man, the teacher first entering upon his duties with a thousand ideals gradually, through the force of adverse circumstances, becomes a mere workman, and compromises his art.

But these teachers who work in a certain rut must by all means be kept out of the auxiliary school. It must never happen that too many subjects or too many children shall cause the teachers to treat all pupils alike. Here the pupil must be judged according to psychological principles by a teacher who knows these principles well, i. e., the growth of every individual child must be watched in the auxiliary school, and noted down in writing, so as to give a picture or characterization of him. One may think that the auxiliary school teacher really can form a pretty good idea of a pupil when his development, before he entered the school, has already been traced out and written down (in the special record), and his physical peculiarities (in the health record) and even his conduct in the regular school (in his certificates from this school) have become known to him. And certainly we can form a fairly reliable picture of the child from all these statements. But this picture is not the picture of an auxiliary school pupil; that must now be attained. As is well known, the child who comes from the regular school does not appear the same in the auxiliary school as he did in the other. Further, the time spent in the auxiliary school is long enough to justify our speaking of a development there.

Now, what written description has been given of this development, and how is, on the whole, the auxiliary school pupil characterized? In Leipzig the characterization of the pupil begins and ends with taking a photograph of the individual. This method of preserving the external appearance of a pupil at the beginning and end of his school course is worthy of consideration. Even yet I remember distinctly one boy who, on entering the auxiliary school at Halle, was almost speechless and without spirit, on account of having been neglected at home; his "anthropoid" appearance incited one at once to take his photograph. After some years the expression of his face had changed so much that his second photograph seemed to represent an entirely different human being. Photography can then give a brief but eloquent characterization of a pupil which will reveal the developing mind.

For a long time it was considered sufficient to characterize the pupil by reports, and this system comes down from the time of pedagogical compromises. In most cases the teacher summed up in brief his judgment, until at last a figure, given half-yearly, was used to mark the growth in the mental, moral, and religious life of the pupil. But can figures be so used? This question has been raised often enough before, for every time these reports are made out the inadequacy of figures is felt anew. But tradition is so powerful, and it is so easy to write figures, that even the auxiliary school teacher is loath to give them up. Nevertheless, these meaningless figures must not be used in the auxiliary school, of all places. With this in mind, a school register was planned at Halle which, above all, did away with the use of arbitrary signs in valuing mental qualities, and was designed to offer opportunities for concrete expression and a written statement of experiences and observations. This little book accompanies the pupil throughout his school course and causes the teacher to express his opinion every half year regarding the conduct, attention, and interest of the pupil and his ability to express himself orally and in writing. Remarks regarding any striking peculiarities are followed by notes regarding progress in the various branches of study. But the longer this register is used, the more clearly we see how inadequate it is. Can, then, an observant teacher give in such concise form a description of a pupil, so that another person can form an accurate mental picture of him? It is indeed a truth that here also brevity is the soul of wit. The fewer statements of observations a personal register or individual record requires, the surer are we that every teacher will fill in the form and answer all the questions.

We must remember that the auxiliary school teacher is, after all, only human. At first full of enthusiasm for a matter which seems so important to him, he sets conscientiously to work. But if the work becomes continuous with increasing many-sidedness and the short intervals of time permit but little progress to be noticed, his ardor cools and idealism becomes mechanism. Mechanical treatment of these evaluations of child life leads to their death. Some few plans for evaluations have been published, but for widely different reasons none of these can be recommended. How much scribbling is often caused by these records! To illustrate this, let us present three plans—those of Görke, Kläbe, and Richter:

Form for the personal records of auxiliary school pupils (by Dr. M. Görke).

I. PERSONAL DATA.

(To be filled in by the teacher.)

1. Surname and Christian name.
2. Age, place of birth, and religion.
3. Name and station of the father and the mother.

II. ANAMNESIS (PAST HISTORY)..

(To be filled in by the teacher.)

(a) Family anamnesis:

1. Illnesses or causes of death of the parents and brothers and sisters and the present condition of their health.
2. Nerve troubles, mental diseases, deafness and dumbness in the family connections.
3. Are the parents blood relations?
4. Economic conditions of the family.

(b) Personal anamnesis:

1. Course of birth.
2. Nourishment (mother's breast, artificial).
3. Physical development—
 - (1) Tooth formation.
 - (2) When did the child begin to walk?
 - (3) Development of senses.
 - (4) Previous diseases, especially epilepsy and other nerve troubles.
4. Intellectual development—
 - (1) When did he begin to talk?
 - (2) When were difficulties in speech first noticeable?
 - (3) What was their nature?
 - (4) When was mental abnormality first noticed?
 - (5) How was this shown?
 - (6) What is its probable cause (accident, illness, serious mistakes in education, such as the overtaking of body or mind, or, on the other hand, their inactivity; penury, privation, etc.)?
 - (7) Were the mental anomalies permanent or transient? Were they of a progressive or fixed character?
 - (8) What medical or pedagogical correctives have been employed against these anomalies, and with what result?
5. Ethical development. Did the child show special defects, impulses, and abnormal tendencies (lying, rage, fearfulness, appetite, laziness)?

III. PRESENT STATUS.

[To be filled in by the physician.]

1. Physical condition:

- (1) General condition of the body (weight, size, appearance, complexion, nourishment, carriage, muscles, etc.; shape of head).
- (2) Sense activity: (a) Eyes, (b) ears, (c) smell and taste, (d) sensibility to pain and touch.
- (3) Abnormal formation of separate parts of the body (divided palate, defects of teeth, etc.).
- (4) Observable signs of disease (scrofula, rickets, kypho-skoliosis, struma, condition of the internal organs, nasal breathing).
- (5) Are paralysis (or paresis) or contractions present?
- (6) Choreic movements, twitchings.

2. Emotional and nervous nature. In making examination, do you come to clues which indicate any defect in the emotions or the will, as excitement, fear, restlessness, low spirits, whimsicality? Are special inclinations or interests shown?

3. Intellectual activity:

- (1) Attention.
- (2) How does his thought proceed (with difficulty or quickly, smoothly or disconnectedly)?
- (3) Speech—
 - (a) Does the child speak of himself in the first person?
Does he use infinitives in speaking?
 - (b) Difficulties of speech (state them clearly).
- (4) Imagination.
- (5) Memory (is there one-sided development)?
- (6) Formation of judgments and conclusions.
- (7) Ideas of number.
- (8) Sense of form.
- (9) Sense of color.
- (10) Has he any idea of time and space?
- (11) What has he accomplished in the several school subjects?

Group III is to be carried on further by the teacher as long as the child attends the school.

Characterization of pupils (according to K. Klübe).

1. Name in full _____
2. Date and place of birth _____
3. Religion _____ Baptized, when? _____
4. Vaccinated: First time, when? _____
Second time, when? _____
5. Name and station of parents or guardian _____
6. Survey of the child's school course:

When admitted.	School.	Class.	Duration of attendance.	Notes regarding interruption of his school work, promotion, change of schools, etc.

- A. Remarks regarding the child's development previous to entering school _____
- B. Stage of development the child had reached when he entered the auxiliary school:
 1. Physical condition _____
 2. Mental development _____
 3. Frame of mind (disposition) _____
 4. Probable causes of the psychopathic phenomena _____
- C. Additional remarks concerning the child throughout his school course _____
(Date of such remarks _____)

D. Survey of the child's interest in the school work, his knowledge and skill :

Date.	Easter, 19...	Michaelmas, 19...	Easter, 19...	Michaelmas, 19...
Religion.....				
German language:				
Reading material.....				
Ability to read.....				
Ability to write.....				
Ability to express his thoughts orally and in writing.....				
Numbers:				
Comprehension of numbers.....				
Skill.....				
History.....				
Home geography.....				
Nature study.....				
Drawing.....				
Writing.....				
Singing.....				
Gymnastics.....				
Technical work.....				
Domestic economy.....				
Absences:				
Excused.....				
Unexcused.....				
Signature of the class teacher.....				

E. Psychological exposition of the weak points in the child's endowment.....

F. Dismissal:

1. Time and causes.....
2. How far advanced in the various school branches.....
3. Remarks in the dismissal certificate.....
4. How has the school made it easier for this child to enter life?.....

G. Additional notes regarding the pupil after his dismissal from school.....

K. Richter demands the greatest degree of detail and thoroughness in these characterizations. In this connection he states:

For such characterizations of pupils, the following points must be observed :

1. In the case of each child, only those characteristics are to be considered which are peculiar to him; all the others must be left unmentioned. The main points in his moral conduct and his progress are always to be given.

2. Observations and information regarding the home training and its possible influence upon the school training and instruction should be entered in the proper place, as well as regarding differences in the conduct of the children in and out of school toward other pupils when watched and when not watched by the teacher, and regarding other points.

3. Regarding those children who attend another class for certain branches, accurate reports should be made at Easter to the class teacher on whatever concerns his conduct and progress in these branches that is to be noted in the characterization.

4. In each later characterization, only the changes and new phenomena are to be noted which have appeared in the course of the school year, as compared with what has already been noted.

5. The characterizations are to be expressed in language which is concise and to the point.

Characterization form of K. Richter.

A. PHYSICAL CONDITION.

Irregularity in structure and function :

1. Of the body in general, in regard to:

- (a) Its size, as compared with that of normal children of the same age, and the size of its parts in relation to one another.

- (b) Its posture in sitting, standing, walking.
- (c) Its diseases and defects: Syphilis, scrofula, rickets, tuberculosis, epilepsy, anæmia, indigestion (easily nauseated, evacuation of the bowels and bladder), abnormal condition of the skin (chapped, flabby, wrinkled, abnormal perspiration, etc.), trembling and twitching of the muscles, easily provoked headache, illnesses during the school year, curvature of the spine, chicken-breasted, narrow-chestedness (breathing), club-foot, lack of symmetry in members of the body, paralysis, defective sexual organs (puberty, influence of coming of puberty upon the physical and mental life), etc.
- 2. Of the head: Size, shape, relation between skull and face, form of skull and face (asymmetry), facial expression (play of expression).
- 3. Of the eyes: Distance from one another, inflammation, paralysis of the lids, squinting, rolling, cataracts and spots on the eyes, changeableness and difference in size of the pupils, short-sightedness and weakness of vision, dull, lifeless, restless, vacant gaze, lack of ability to keep the eyes fixed upon one object, color-blindness, etc.
- 4. Of the ears: Exterior (outstanding, large, abnormal rim, folds, helixes, attached lobes, lack of the same), diseases, hearing.
- 5. Of the nose and throat regarding smelling and breathing (chronic catarrh, adenoid growths, ozena).
- 6. Of the mouth:
 - (a) The lips (distorted, thick, hare-lip).
 - (b) The chin (protruding or receding, etc.).
 - (c) The teeth (number, condition, position).
 - (d) Palate, uvula, tonsils.
 - (e) Tongue (thick, tongue-tied, taste, etc.).
 - (f) Secretion of saliva (salivary).
- 7. Of the skin: Sensitiveness to heat, blows (as in wounds), etc.

B. FRAME OF MIND AND CHARACTER.

Peculiarities in regard to:

- 1. Disposition: Quiet, serious, sad, melancholy, bad-humored, peevish, sullen, morose, indifferent, sensitive, touchy, soft-hearted, tearful, emotional, whimsical, callous, shy, anxious, fearful, timid, bright, gay, lively, unruly, boisterous, irritable.
- 2. The sensuous feelings and impulses:
 - (a) Appetite: Eats too little, refuses food, eats a great deal, greedy, loves sweets, is dainty, chews paper, wood, finger nails, etc., eats dirt, etc.
 - (b) Sexual impulses: Strongly developed; self-pollution.
 - (c) Impulse toward activity: Lack of physical activity, fond of ease, indolent, lazy, easily enervated, sleepy, taciturn, restless, lively, moves convulsively, always playing and toying with things, unsteady and precipitate in movements and actions, inclined to laugh (hysterical), talkative, boisterous.

Automatic movements (swaying of parts of the body), gliding, staggering, drumming, rubbing, movement of tongue and lips, making faces, etc.

Clumsy, awkward, unsteady, ungainly in simple movements (spreading and bending the fingers, grasping, throwing, rising up), weak muscle feeling, faulty memory for connected movements (dressing and undressing), left or right handed.

Imitation (mechanical or deliberate).

- (d) Over-developed impulse for collecting articles, kleptomania, pyromania (Kokeln), destroying things, running away, wandering about, contradicting.

3. Moral feelings:

- (a) Feelings toward self: With or without self-respect and self-confidence, proud, haughty, honorable, ambitious, vain, love of admiration, boastful, without sense of honor, courageous, bold, cowardly.
- (b) Feelings toward others: Conduct toward adults and children: Faithful, excessive love; indifferent to parents, fellows, and familiar events; apathetic, repellant; grateful and willing to acknowledge the kindness of others; polite and obliging, thoughtful, fawning, confidential, suspicious, modest, obtrusive, bold, shameless, disobedient, unruly, perverse, stubborn, indifferent to praise and blame.

Shares others' joys and sorrows, jealous, envious, malicious, scornful, mischief-maker, mean, revengeful.

Sociable (pupil-friendships), tendency to avoid others, good-natured, inoffensive, fond of teasing, touchy, quarrelsome, unsociable, domineering, leads others astray, fault-finding, tattling, violent, plays underhand tricks, rough, cruel (torments animals).

(N. B. For the sake of brevity, the opposites of the qualities have in most cases been omitted.)

- (c) Feeling for right and duty: With or without sense of right, duty, and propriety; conscientious, negligent, fickle, thoughtless; shame, repentance; selfish, covetous, deceitful, thievish, generous, dogmatic, arrogant, well or ill behaved, sly; loves truth, sincere, mendacious (from intellectual or moral weakness), hypocritical; behavior in sexual relations.
4. Religious feelings: With or without religious feeling, superstitious, canting, hypocritical, etc.
5. The esthetic feelings: Lack of sense of beauty (shapes, tones, colors), love of that which is ugly and in bad taste, pleasure in rough talk, preference for indecent language; love of order and cleanliness with respect to his own body, clothes, school things, surroundings; promptness.
6. Intellectual feelings: Pleasure in success, displeasure in failure, uncertainty (doubt) regarding the accuracy of his own accomplishments, self-satisfied, self-complacent, overestimating his own knowledge and ability, easily surprised, curious, inquisitive.

With or without spontaneous, energetic impulse, indifferent, without energy and weak of will, dependent upon the impressions of the moment, easily managed and influenced, credulous and easily misled, soon wearied, inconstant and fickle in desires, reluctant, lazy, fond of work, industrious, docile.

C. INTELLECTUAL STATUS.

Special characteristics in regard to:

1. Mental capacity in general:

- (a) Incapable of training; is he nearer this or the normal?
- (b) Symmetry in the development of the main faculties of the mind (memory, powers of thought); irregularity, special weakness or strength of the one or the other.
- (c) Time required by mental processes: Slow, mentally inert, averse to mental work, lazy habits of thought, precipitate and rash, flighty, thoughtless.

2. Attentiveness during mental activity; voluntary and involuntary attention: Attentive, inattentive, keenly observant, indifferent, persistent, soon wearied, consistent, inconstant, easily distracted, jumping from one thing to another, digressive, absent-minded, heedless, only attentive when recalled frequently to the subject.

Interest in the work in general or in particular studies.

3. Particular mental powers:

- (a) Conduct on receiving new impressions and sensations; receptivity, quickness and power of apprehension; difficult or easy, slow, quick, incomplete and inaccurate, complete and clear. Superficial in perception and observation. Differences in the various senses. One-sided preference for certain signs.

More or less weak or defective excitability and improvement of old impressions by grasping something new; difficulty of understanding and comprehending sense perceptions or language.

- (b) Power to assimilate, retain, and recall (memory): Hard or easy, more or less complete assimilation of maxims, verses, poems, multiplication table, and such mechanical material, or impression of that gained by work in the several branches of study.

Shorter or longer retention of sense perceptions and images. Forgetfulness.

Many-sidedness of observation; strong or defective memory for names, words, numbers, symbols (letters, figures), colors, places, tones, successions of objects, connected movements, etc. Mental horizon according to its extent, kind, and form.

Quicker or slower recollection; faithfulness of reproduction without omissions, inversions, confusion, additions, or the opposite.

- (c) Power to work over and digest what has been acquired:

- (1) In thinking: Hard and slow distinction of objects and their special features, their resemblances, similarities, etc., and of the essential from the nonessential. Difficult and imperfect abstraction (formation of concepts), does not advance beyond sense-images; poverty of general notions in certain directions, and in this or that department of study; unclear and vague ideas, confusion and intermixing of ideas.

Accuracy, rapidity, certainty of judgments and conclusions in regard to concrete and abstract things.

- (2) In the activity of the imagination: Weak or easily excited imagination; difficulty in thinking of anything pictured, in imagining things not present, or in placing himself in other times, in strange countries and lands, in the frame of mind of people living under other conditions (biblical history, compositions, etc.).

Imagination when at play (building, exercises in putting things together, etc.), in hand work (change of form and size), in drawing, (form, color).

Fanciful (planning subterfuges, evil reports regarding others, often quite credible).

4. Development of speech:

- (a) The tone of speech as to its strength, timbre, pitch: Gentle, whispering, loud, shrieking; singing, monotonous, false or too much accented; harsh, hoarse, screeching; sharp, squeaking, droning, restrained, nasal; high, deep (puberty).

- (b) Pronunciation and rate of speaking: Impure tones, careless pronunciation of end-syllables, slow, long-drawn out, hesitating, jerky, stammering, stuttering (insertion of syllables and words), rapid, run together, rattling, blundering, with the omission or repetition of syllables and words.
- (c) Organic and central defects of speech: Lispings, stammering, stuttering; complete or partial inability to speak (only single sounds, syllables, certain words and phrases can be spoken). Tripping on syllables. Failure to see the connection between sense perception and the word, letter and sound, figure and number, mental image and word; word deafness and word blindness. Confusion of words with each other without noticing it (e. g., for wardrobe (Schrank), table; for table, leg, etc.).
- (d) Clearness and accuracy of speech: Clear, connected, parrot-like, deficient vocabulary, inventing words, choice of expressions, use of colloquial expressions and dialect.

Development of feeling for language (Sprachgefühl): Difference in ability to understand and speak the dialect and the written language. Mistakes in the order of words, use of the infinitive in speaking, false inflection, use of wrong tenses, prepositions, etc.

D. DEVELOPMENT IN KNOWLEDGE AND ACCOMPLISHMENTS.

Under this head will be considered the child's attitude toward the subject-matter presented in particular branches, which is conditioned by his mental and physical endowment. Therefore, by reference to the peculiarities given under A, B, and C, we shall now show to what points the chief attention is to be given in connection with the various branches of study.

1. Religious instruction: What religious conceptions, thoughts, and feelings does he already possess? Is it easy or difficult for him to grasp religious teachings? Interest in such instruction and understanding of it, especially in regard to biblical material of the grade in question.

Stage of development of his thought in connection with religious material (distinguishing, judging, and forming conclusions, especially regarding the ethical and religious value of actions and the acquirement of ethical and dogmatic teachings). Understanding, retention, and reproduction of religious material. Application of the results to his own behavior.

2. Realien (subjects affording positive knowledge of things):

- (a) Object lessons: Powers to observe and describe the material presented by nature, model, and picture. Differences in perception through the different senses. Acquired knowledge of names, qualities, activities, purpose, application, use, etc., of things and events in his environment.

Interest and manner of participation in a conversation. Understanding of a conversation regarding things present to the senses or absent, and of those moral or religious impulses aroused by the same.

Thought and imagination in connection with the material presented. Memory for fables connected with it, snatches of poetry, etc.

- (b) Nature study: Power to see and recognize localities and objects in nature, model, and picture. Greater or less possession of ideas gained through his own experience or through instruction. Power of thinking regarding natural objects (relation between structure and function, motive and result, cause and effect, etc.).

- (c) "Homeology" (Heimatkunde) and geography: Pupil's ability to observe (what he sees when by himself and what takes place in class rambles); activity of the memory and ability to transport himself (in imagination) into districts previously seen (sense of locality). Skill in transferring his ideas to a map. Skill in finding places on it and interpreting it. Transferral of fundamental geographical ideas in "homeology" to the chart.

Ability to compare geographical objects with each other, and to present to his mind, in absence of a map, the objects in question. Power to acquire and retain knowledge of his home environment and geography.

History: Interest in historical persons, facts, and events connected with our immediate and more remote fatherland, and understanding of the same. Memory for facts, names, etc.

3. German:

- (a) Reading: Reading book and reading material (knowledge of printed and written letters, formation of syllables and words, reading of sentences and connected extracts. German or Roman type). Grade of mechanical skill in reading, and the intelligent reading of this material. Characteristic errors in reading. Reproduction of selections read, and memory for these.
- (b) Correct writing: Copying of written letters and words, with or without knowledge of their meaning. Copying from print (German, Roman). Power in the analysis and synthesis of words. Writing from dictation (mechanical or after reflection). Characteristic errors.
- (c) Written compositions: Grade of ability to write down his own thoughts or those of others. Errors in construction of sentences, order of words and thoughts, choice of expressions, etc.

4. Arithmetic: Number work (knowledge of the order of numbers, counting, and the writing of numbers). Mechanical skill in the first four rules, stating how large numbers he can use in each. Differences in oral and written arithmetic. Specially good memory for numbers, sequence of the operations and results, or lack of the same. Understanding for the applications of arithmetic. Striking differences between the ability to handle concrete and abstract examples.

5. Accomplishments:

- (a) Calligraphy: Material presented. Knowledge of the forms of letters and their differences. Aptitude for copying. Characteristics of writing (direction, strength, spacing, relative size of letters, regularity of letters, etc.).
- (b) Drawing: Net line drawing (straight and curved lines), stigmographic drawing (different distances of points), free-hand drawing. Understanding and copying different directions and sizes, singly and in groups (figures). Manner of performance: Mechanical or after reflection, more or less independent, light or heavy hand, eye measurement, accuracy, neatness. Imagination and taste in the matter of forms and colors.
- (c) Singing: Hearing, voice, sense of time, musical memory; special preference for music, singing, certain songs, etc.
- (d) Gymnastics: Strength, endurance, nimbleness and sense of rhythm in executing the movements. Behavior during gymnastic and popular games (sociability, defects of character, imagination).
- (e) Handwork: Kind of activity. Cleverness in any special line. Special interest in some one kind of activity. Method and manner of execution and degree of skill acquired.

But it is not only the amount of writing required which terrifies one; the teacher who has any special interest in the finer shades of the child's development feels it a burden to have to answer definite printed questions. Let the scheme for a description of a pupil, therefore, be neither too comprehensive nor its questions too finely drawn. It happens that not every auxiliary school teacher can be in a position to propose a perfectly unobjectionable form. Trüper therefore properly urged the joint action of many coworkers interested in the subject (*Kinderfehler*, 1897, 5-6); and if this cooperation led to nothing else than the gaining of some common points of view from which to work out a suitable scheme, this would be a great gain. Unfortunately Trüper's plea was without effect. Few works have appeared since then, and of none of them can it be said that they help toward unity. Perhaps Lay's "individuality list" may serve as a starting point. In his *Experimental Didactics*, Lay works out his list from the following points of view:

A. Conditions and functions:

I. Inheritance.

II. Environment—

(a) Family—

1. Nourishment (mistakes, alcoholism).
2. Illnesses.
3. Amount of sleep (its depth, room, bedfellows).
4. Play and recreation (kind, time, work outside of school, private lessons).
5. Bringing up (parents' view of life, mistakes, examples).

(b) Fellow-men—

1. Friendships and playmates.
2. Public life (street, religious and political companionship).

(c) Nature—

Natural surroundings (of the home, of place of residence).

III. Correlations of the sensory-motor mechanism—

(a) Physical and psychical energy.

(b) Exhaustibility.

(c) Talents.

(d) Traits of character.

B. Physical qualities:

General, constitution, size, weight, abnormalities, diseases.

C. Mental qualities:

I. Sensory: Type of observation.

II. Associative: Attention, memory, interest.

III. Motor: Movements, dexterity, actions.

While previous proposals dealt with details, Lay's plan rises to a certain generality as a logical structure. Direct reference to the departments of study is wanting to it. This apparent defect is to be greeted as an advance. In Halle it is just the necessity of entering up in the register every half-year a concise criticism of the work in each subject which showed the inadequacy of that method. For example, What can the teacher say regarding progress in religious

instruction? Is he to look over the work covered and then write: "N. N. has learned well or poorly a number of biblical stories, parts of the catechism, verses of songs, and maxims?" Or is he rather to emphasize the greater appreciation of the subject-matter? Or, finally, could a measure be applied to the increasing harmony between the childish deeds and the religious and moral imperatives? I am constrained to think that the auxiliary school teacher is not at all qualified to indicate exactly progress made in the department of religion. In examining other branches of study one will come upon similar difficulties, and straightway speak of the trouble in making these reports in the auxiliary school.

Although Lay does help the teacher out of this trouble, still many other difficulties remain unsolved by his plan. If only every teacher who fills out this "personality list" possessed all the psychological insight which the composer of the questions presupposes! Besides this, the many-sidedness and breadth of the points of view may cause the old scruple to rise that more writing is required than is absolutely necessary. But perhaps Lay's plan can be simplified and so made more practicable. Of course there is always the danger that an attempt at simplification will result only in abbreviating the logical structure and not in building it up anew. Still, if an attempt is made later it may at least incite others to continue the critical work. Perhaps at one of the future meetings of our auxiliary school association this important question, so vitally connected with the good of the auxiliary school, will be taken up and made the subject of general consideration.

To begin with, the whole field included under Lay's title of "physical qualities" may be taken away from the teacher and given to the school physician. The health record, as illustrated above, can at any time be consulted by the principal or teachers of the auxiliary school, so that the necessity of an isolated entry by the physician is excluded. So there remain only three main divisions for the teacher, the first of which, "inheritance," is to be treated summarily. The other two are to be treated under the following heads: Environment (family and home): 1, vocation; 2, food; 3, number of children; 4, illnesses; 5, parents' views of life; 6, recreation, work, and associations. Inheritance in sensory and motor fields: 1, physical and mental powers of resistance; 2, power of observation; 3, attention, memory, special interests; 4, movements, skill, actions, speech; 5, traits of character.

It might be of interest to look again at the two pictures of pupils, which we already know, from the point of view of Lay's proposals. In the broader framework, Agnes S. would appear as follows:

I. A. S., born December 24, 1895, has evidently inherited the effects of alcoholism.

II. Her father worked at odd jobs, and died under the influence of liquor. The mother, not of irreproachable reputation, married again, and this time an iron turner, who had often been punished for drunkenness. At present she lives separated from him. The food in the family has always been insufficient. The earnings do not yet permit any improvement. Of the five children born of the first marriage, three died young, of convulsions. The others suffered from all the usual children's diseases. The mother, though not yet more than 40 years old, has been delicate since the birth of the last child. There is only one narrow sleeping room for the use of the whole family. For the two girls there is only one couch, which is far from being clean. Agnes gnashes her teeth in her sleep, and is very restless. During the whole time she is free from school she wanders about the streets with her sister; they are not required to work. The mother is not a model of industry or true motherhood. On the one side of her scale of educational means stand hard words and blows; on the other, pampering is considered to be a sign of mother love. Agnes joins her playmates on the street or in the yard for a little while; then she dreams by herself. Sometimes she embraces her comrades; again, she causes them to cry out by her scratching and biting.

III. As a result of insufficient nourishment, she is physically incapable of resisting disease. We can only speak of her perseverance in mental lines when we mean her fixed tendency to do whatever is forbidden or unseemly. Beyond this, Agnes is easily tired out; she falls asleep during class instruction. Any development of talent is impossible, since she can not follow a train of thought or stick to one idea. At one time she is satisfied with her surroundings; at another, she is quarrelsome and peevish. On the slightest provocation her laughter changes to tears; she even laughs or cries sometimes without any apparent reason. She seems quite unreceptive of any educative influence, and has no sense of moral obligation.

In size, Agnes is below the average of children of her age. In regard to general constitution, she belongs to the middle group. Size, chest measure, and weight do not reach the average. She has a prominent abdomen and a slight curvature of the spine; her walk is unsteady, awkward, and waddling. She squints with her left eye; otherwise eyes and ears are normal. She always keeps her mouth open in breathing; her palate is very convex. Her teeth are irregular. Although no irregularity is found in the passages of the nose, her speech is very defective.

It has been learned from the court records that an assault was attempted upon her.

She receives impressions from the outer world only imperfectly. This defect does not arise from faulty sense organs, but is a result

of mental restlessness. This restlessness causes an inattention and a transiency of ideas, which make continuous concentration upon an object or an occurrence impossible. Even if she seems to try to be attentive in the classes she is soon distracted. Any sound, a sunbeam, etc., throws the child into a new train of thought. Therefore, her memory for words, relations of time and space, colors, and tones is exceptionally weak. Not less faulty is her ability to talk. Her interests are all those of the passing moment; permanent interests have no place in her life. Characteristic of such a person is her mobility; she can keep her limbs quiet only a very short time. It seems as if the physical restlessness must correspond to the mental. Manual skill is not shown, either in feminine occupations or in modeling or working with paper. This want of perseverance always severely tries the patience of the instructor.

According to Lay's shortened plan, another picture would take the following form:

I. Inheritance: Otto B., born 1892; has evidently inherited tuberculosis.

II. Environment: The father, a laborer at odd jobs, died of consumption. The mother goes out washing every day from early morning till late in the evening. She has had 12 children, 2 of whom died of convulsions while teething, 1 from premature birth, and a fourth died young, owing to a fall. Otto is the ninth child of the family. All the births were hard. Besides the prolonged illness of the father, there were many children's diseases in the family. The parents have no idea of the duty of educating their children. Otto never knew the joys of family life. When with his playmates he is amiable just so long as he can play the part of leader. If he thinks he is getting the worst of it he avenges himself on those who seem to be gaining the advantage over him. He is fond of doing mischief, catching on street cars, and now and again he steals fruit from the stands. Since his mother lives on the outskirts of the city, he wanders about a great deal.

III. Inheritance in sensory and motor fields: Through being out of doors a great deal Otto has become very strong, and can walk the long distance to and from school without showing noticeable signs of fatigue. But in the mental field it is different. Many days his inner life seems to be quite extinguished. What he must have known and what must have interested him does not exist for him at all in a short space of time. Then, however, his latent mind awakens and he appears again as a bright scholar. He can extend his field of observation very quickly. As a real street urchin he observes closely every occurrence on the street which interests him at all. Already he knows, too, the value of money. He prefers to spend his spare moments earning money by performing little services. The seventh

commandment is especially hard for him to keep. He is agile at running and climbing. His speech is not normal. In the first place, he pays little attention to the proper formation of sounds and sometimes stammers. Again, he leaves out words here and there or puts them in their wrong places in the sentence. At heart Otto is a kind, good-natured little fellow. Punishments, however, make him sullen and defiant. He is most of all affected if his school companions show malicious pleasure at his punishments. In these cases he acts impulsively.

His physical constitution may, in general, be called good. In size, chest measure, and weight he is above the average. In chest, abdomen, spine, and the appearance of the skin there is nothing peculiar to be noticed. His eyes are astigmatic. The oculist ordered glasses for him, and these very materially improved his sight. His ears are normal. He is a mouth breather, and speaks hoarsely and slovenly.

Otto B. belongs to those types who know how to enrich their inner life from the impressions of the outer world. As long as the subject-matter of instruction is concrete, he is attentive; but lessons committed to memory he can not be trusted to recollect. His defective speech can not, indeed, give him the necessary help. Special interests or abilities which might give hints as to a future vocation have not yet appeared. His activity, which is often uncontrollable, can not be regarded as a diseased condition of the muscles. In his conduct he is in danger of going wrong just as soon as he knows that he is not watched.

Even in this short characterization there may be many a superfluous remark; on the other hand, this or that characteristic point may be missing. It is very hard to draw successfully a pupil's picture, harder perhaps than to show in his proper colors the external man. Therefore repeated consultation in professional circles is very necessary in order to improve the work. And how important this matter is! Think, in the first place, of the auxiliary school teacher! Since he has this advantage over the teacher of the regular school, that he is educator first of all, and only after that instructor, so the opportunity of gaining a basis for his educative measures by means of the personal record must be very welcome. That he can now lay this foundation himself, increases its value for him. Further, every stage of the building from this foundation is a test of its accuracy. Of course this kind of guaranty must not lead him to the conviction that, since some of the premises are correct, divers conclusions can in all cases be taken for granted. And yet by constant observation and consideration, and by carefully adding and taking away little points, a picture can be formed which justifies the teacher in his medico-pedagogical treatment of the child. And this justification secures an ease of mind which raises him in his work far above many who call

themselves teachers. It gives him that pleasure, too, which is always found in scientific research, for every successful pupil characterization serves in its small way the great purpose which the study of the evolution of man has set up.

But it would be only pampering the vanity of the auxiliary school teacher to say that the highest value of the personal record was to be found on this side. All auxiliary school work is first and foremost to serve the pupils. By all this tedious work the teacher should first become really acquainted with his pupils, in order that he may then properly judge and treat them. This aim is essential for any teacher who has to influence a pupil. However, it is also important for any other person who has occasion to work with the child in the school. They all take up the work of others, continue the observations, and test and complete them, so that finally at the end of the school period a fairly complete picture has been made.

But it is not alone during the school period that the auxiliary school pupil is to be judged and treated properly. His whole life long he is entitled to special consideration on the part of others. Therefore at the end of his school career, as occasion requires, employers and military and court authorities are to be informed of the existence of a personal record. Unfortunately these people are still very ignorant of the use of this record. They all wish, more or less, to have numbers, which seem to be no source of trouble to them, as a summary of the acquirements of the school work, while the more elaborate verbal picture of the pupil causes them to first form a judgment, and therefore seems troublesome. If all would agree to send half-yearly reports to the parents of auxiliary school pupils, as is done at Plauen,^a in order to keep before them that which is characteristic of their children, employers and military and court authorities would gradually have to learn to make use of these personal records in forming judgments. To make it simpler, the auxiliary school teacher or principal can make out an extract which presents briefly the points desired for each particular case. Thus a

^a Half-yearly statement to parents.

[Certificate in words and an expression to the parents of the teacher's wishes.]

Name of pupil:----- Class-----

Conduct and industry:-----

Mental progress:-----

Absences: Excused,----- Unexcused,-----

Auxiliary school (six-graded, regular folk school) at Plauen i. V., Michaelmas,
19--.

-----, Teacher.

(Signature of father or guardian.)

statement would have to be made out for an employer (of a servant, etc.) different from that for a master (of an apprentice). The military authorities lay stress on different points from the courts. But what has been so carefully worked out must find appreciation in the quarter where appreciation is due. Unfortunately there are still plenty of examples to show how little the humane, yet real, work of the auxiliary school is appreciated. When people more generally know what pains the auxiliary school workers take to get clear, objective pictures, and when the practical value of this careful work is seen, then the time will have come when a proper value will be placed on individual characterizations. Many a bitter experience, many serious results of disregarding what the auxiliary school could foretell, will point directly to the value of its work. Elsewhere we shall show more fully what an important place the auxiliary school, especially in connection with these pupil pictures, has to fill as a social organization.

VII.—THE BUILDING FOR THE AUXILIARY SCHOOL.

Since the auxiliary school is the newest of all kinds of school in any town, and always requires less space than the regular school, people are not at all worried when it is given only indifferent accommodations. Generally it is established in connection with a folk school and given rooms which are not needed by it. It must find a place as best it can.

Poor quarters, however, do not always mean that the city authorities wish to put the school in a Cinderella position. They really can not act otherwise. Finances in large cities are rigorously administered, and the ideal conditions for a school organization which is still only in the stage of development, as is the auxiliary school at present, can not so easily be secured, and yet they must be striven after. What, then, would be suitable quarters for an auxiliary school? How could it be best fitted up?

The situation of auxiliary school classes in a district is governed mainly by the size of the district and the location of those parts where the workingmen live. A smaller community will probably found its first and perhaps only permanent special class in or near the folk schoolhouse. When the district is quite large, it is advisable to have two classes or groups of classes, one at each end of the district, so that the children may not have to come too far to school. For the sake of the school government, however, it will be desirable that a number of classes should be built up into a whole school before other combinations of classes are planned. There may be, however, two auxiliary schools in a town under separate management; the number of pupils, of course, determines the kind of organization.

If, however, the special classes would fill a whole schoolhouse, the city authorities would have to decide to erect a special building for the auxiliary school. If those who own the land do not demand too much for it, a favorable location can be selected. The best situation is near the homes of the working people and at the same time near some gardens. Besides the school building, a gymnasium should be erected on this piece of land and these buildings should border on playgrounds and a school garden.

The auxiliary school building, provided with living rooms for the school principal and the janitor, should be a model institution as far as hygienic conditions are concerned. The heating, ventilating, and latrines should be according to the best approved systems. The floors of the halls and rooms should be covered with linoleum, and the class rooms, especially for the younger pupils, are best if arranged in the form of an amphitheater, with suitable seating accommodations.

In addition to well-lighted class rooms the school should have a bathroom, an infirmary, and a workshop. In connection with the bathroom there should be dressing rooms. Enough showers should be supplied so that all the boys or all the girls may bathe at once. The floor of the bathroom should be warmed and so arranged as to prevent slipping.

The room for the infirmary must be large enough to be used for vaccinations and all examinations of the pupils. From time to time those needing special attention or those who have fallen in a faint or epileptics may be brought here. For this purpose mattresses should be provided. A medicine cabinet should contain all kinds of bandages, restoratives, and antiseptics ready for use. All the apparatus necessary for the doctor's examination of the pupils should be kept here, too.

The workshops should be fitted up for modeling and for paper and wood work. For these purposes tables and stools should be provided, as well as chests for the material, for tools, and for overalls, aprons, etc. A joiner's bench and a turning lathe should also be included in the equipment.

It is well to connect the gymnasium with the school by means of a corridor, so that the children can take their walks in any kind of weather. In the gymnasium, as well as in the schoolhouse itself, many wall mottoes and pictures should be hung up, in order to make the time spent in the school as pleasant and stimulating as possible. The same apparatus can not be used in this gymnasium as in a regular school gymnasium. Here it is a case of hygienic gymnastics and requires special apparatus. As an aid to exercises done together a musical instrument should be provided. The auxiliary school must have a playground and a school garden at its disposal, too. Sand

piles make good play centers, and garden beds offer splendid opportunities for the care and culture of useful and decorative plants. Finally aquaria, caterpillar collections, and terraria may be placed on the window sills in order to teach the pupils how to care for animals.

VIII.—CLASSIFICATION OF PUPILS IN AN AUXILIARY SCHOOL, AND THE NUMBER IN EACH CLASS.

After thus giving the main requirements for an ideal schoolhouse, the next question to be answered is: How are the pupils to be classified? Whoever has watched the development of an auxiliary school in one of the larger cities will realize how long a time is needed before the weakly endowed pupils can be separated into several classes. Hence every incipient auxiliary school must have only one class for a number of years. In this case the teacher will have to group them in some way, but even with hard work will seem to accomplish very little. For in order that this new special organization may become a part of the city school system and be shown to be highly necessary, the auxiliary school teacher must receive all those pupils whom the public school can and must discard.

Everywhere the problem has to be solved as to what pupils shall be admitted to the auxiliary school. In Halle this part of the development of the organization progressed quite slowly, and we may assume that in other places there will be the same difficulty. Gradually and carefully the pupils are sifted out, and so the picture changes. When the city administration is once convinced that it is not absolutely necessary that there should be pronounced weakness of mind nor very marked signs of abnormal development before a pupil can be admitted to the auxiliary school, then the meshes of the sieve gradually become larger, and the expansion of a special class into an auxiliary school comes about as a necessary and natural result. Even here one must make haste slowly. Possibly this period of development is shorter nowadays, and the desired goal is reached more quickly. But everywhere we must begin with the auxiliary school of a single class. How many pupils, however, would it be proper to put in a class, and how many classes should there be in a fully developed auxiliary school?

Since each class of an auxiliary school makes up a portion of the expenditure of a city community, it is hard for people to come to see that the auxiliary school pupils can really gain benefit from the school work only if they are placed in very small classes. The Prussian minister of education in his publication of June 16, 1894 (mentioned in Chapter I), recommends that city communities should never allow the number of pupils in an auxiliary class to exceed

25. His purpose, in my opinion, is not to frighten the cities away from their praiseworthy efforts to help on the auxiliary school system. Behind his statement lie financial considerations; were it not for these he certainly would have lowered the number very materially.

This ministerial pronouncement has unfortunately been taken as an official norm in many a community, and they like to stick to the number 25. If, however, the teacher wishes to give individual instruction, the number of pupils in a class must be less than 25. This is especially necessary in the lower classes; there not more than 15 pupils should really be taught together. There are already some cities which declare this size of class proper and have introduced it into their schools. It were to be wished that other cities would follow their example, until finally it would be the rule everywhere that not more than 15 pupils were found in the lower classes of the auxiliary school, 20 in the intermediate, and 25 in the higher.

In this statement the membership of the auxiliary school has been implied. This is largely determined by the size of the place. And yet, on the other hand, we can not say that the size of the place absolutely determines the number of pupils. Approximate statistics show that on an average one-half of 1 per cent of the population of a city is made up of weak-minded children. In a city of 100,000 inhabitants, then, there would be 500 pupils for an auxiliary school. Fortunately this estimate does not always hold good; out of 160,000 inhabitants, Halle has only admitted 210 to 225 children to its auxiliary school; Mannheim, a city of almost the same size, cared for only 67 auxiliary school pupils in the year 1903-4.^a So size alone can not determine the number of pupils in an auxiliary school. Other factors play a part, too.

But the conditions in Mannheim can not be taken as decisive here, because, as we have shown elsewhere, their admission procedure differs from that of Halle. A glance at Wintermann's Survey of German Auxiliary Schools and Auxiliary Classes (published in 1903) would give us more definite information. The industrial towns, as Aix la Chapelle, Barmen, Brunswick, Chemnitz, Cologne, Düsseldorf, Elberfeld, and many others, send more pupils to the auxiliary school than other cities whose population is not made up largely of workmen. Thus the kind of inhabitants and their vocations and manner of life have more influence upon the number of pupils in an auxiliary school than the size of the city.

Suppose, then, that in a city there are 100 or more pupils to be educated in an auxiliary school. How should the organization of the

^a In the current year about 99 children attend the Mannheim auxiliary school. This is about 0.6 per cent of the total number of school children. There are six classes in the auxiliary school,

school proceed? Though there will be all possible variations in the answer to this question, one thing may be taken as generally recognized and agreed to, namely, the weakest children who have not yet been to school must first be brought together and a kind of preliminary grade formed. This preparatory grade can be in one or two classes. In this division children will first be made ready for school work and taught to talk properly. What form the further establishment of the auxiliary school must take depends not alone on the pupils, but also upon the room, accommodations, etc., at their disposal. In one city, three further stages are added to the preliminary one; in another, four, or even six. In still other places there is a tendency to establish a class for every school year, as is done in the regular school. But eight classes could really not be formed in the auxiliary school, for many children have lost one or two years in fruitless attendance on the folk school. Besides, only few children go through all the classes of an auxiliary school. But the auxiliary school should have as many divisions as possible, and no class should have more than two sections.

The question of organization demands consideration from two points of view, namely, consideration of the religion and of the sex of the auxiliary school pupils. Fortunately, there have as yet been no quarrels in the auxiliary school over the predominance of one or the other religious belief among the pupils. Action springing from love for mankind in general is bound to no dogma. Consequently it will not be necessary to divide the children according to their beliefs. Whenever parents or the clergy of a city desire to have the denominational feature preserved in the instruction, the religious instruction of the child in question must be left to his denominational preceptors, as in the regular school. Experience, however, has taught that very seldom or never do parents or clergy insist on this right. Especially if the religious instruction avoids all dogmas (and this is very necessary in the auxiliary school), the evangelical and the Catholic child can attend the classes in religion together without friction until they reach the age of confirmation.

Just as little as religious faith can the sex of the pupils make demands upon the school organization. Whether it has been from economical or pedagogical considerations, coeducation in the auxiliary school has been regarded as essential and helpful from the very first. Here, then, the problem of coeducation has been quickly solved, and no one has yet found moral or other dangers for those boys and girls who are taught together.

IX.—THE DAILY PROGRAMME.

Even in the regular school it is a difficult matter to plan a schedule of exercises which fulfills the demands of hygiene and at the same time answers the purposes of the school. With the very best intentions it will not always be possible to absolutely subordinate the latter to the former. Besides, in spite of the activity of physicians and school people who are working in this field, there is still little agreement when it comes to answering the following questions: What studies evidently tire the pupil most, and what are sure methods of recognizing and determining the intensity of fatigue? Names like Kraepelin, Ebbinghaus, Lobsien, and Baur, who have made work and fatigue in general the subject of their research; Erismann, Burgerstein, and Schiller, who have included the division and length of recesses in their sphere of work, as well as the order of lessons—these names can serve as proof of this. But it is assumed as a matter of course that weak-minded children show fatigue and exhaustion sooner than normal children. There has been therefore little accurate research in regard to auxiliary school pupils.

The lesson periods in the auxiliary school are of course shorter than those in a regular school. Indeed, in many cases only half an hour is given to each lesson. Further, the arrangement of subjects has been carefully considered; difficult studies should alternate with easier ones. So subjects which require special mental effort and deal more or less with abstractions should not follow one another. As a rule these are separated by introducing technical work, but some kinds of technical work, too, are specially tiring for auxiliary school pupils; consequently, great care must be used in making a choice. If general principles can be set up at all to guide in the arrangement of the programme the following may perhaps be of service:

1. The lessons of the day should be arranged according to the amount of mental energy of the pupil required for each.
2. The first lessons in the morning should not always make the greatest demands upon the pupil.
3. If one subject has specially stimulated one side of the child nature, the following should waken the other side, which up to this point has not been active.

Beyond these few general rules the teacher should be free to change the daily programme in accordance with his discoveries and experiences in the class. For it often happens that pupils come to school half asleep and are then quite unfit for arithmetic or religious reflection; a walk is at such times much more useful than forced instruction in the school.

In auxiliary school literature a fourth, fifth, and sixth point is often deemed authoritative in determining the school programme, as follows:

4. The demand is made that in all classes the same subjects be taught at the same hours. If, then, in one class arithmetic is assigned to a certain hour, arithmetic must be written down in the programme for the same hour in all the other classes. This is necessary, they say, on account of the peculiar abilities of the children; for many a pupil can read but poorly, while he can talk quite well. Others can advance quite normally in arithmetic, while lack of progress in speaking and narrating keeps them far behind their fellow pupils. Shall a pupil, so they argue, be kept back on account of deficiencies in one subject, when he can accomplish more than the others, perhaps, in other lines of work? Rather let each pupil advance in every separate study according to his special ability. Taking it for granted that all the auxiliary school classes are assembled in one building and that the programme is arranged as indicated, the pupil can go into that class in reading or arithmetic, for example, which corresponds to his knowledge or ability. In the other subjects the child remains in his own class and advances there with his own classmates.

This arrangement may have the advantage that individual talents of a child can be brought to a certain development, that it can cipher or read or narrate better than if it had advanced more slowly with its classmates. But what do these single accomplishments signify when compared with his backwardness in other branches? If a general advance were only combined with this other! And what restlessness would come into the school! This wandering from one class to another induces a moving about without restraint which tends to make the school unsettled and so almost excludes any permanent educative influence.

5. The auxiliary school must, further, finish with its lessons in the morning and avoid afternoon instruction. This demand, which has lately been so strongly urged in connection with the regular schools of our larger cities, has especial significance for the auxiliary school. The auxiliary school pupils, in larger cities at least, have as a rule a long way to go from home, because their school is the only one in the place, and long walks to school are recognizedly a burden under which delicate children very evidently suffer. Anyone who has watched the children of the auxiliary school on their way to school through a large city will be loath to require this of them twice a day. Of course it can not always be helped in the higher classes. An afternoon will have to be added if 32 lessons a week are to be secured. In such cases, as in case of weak and delicate pupils, the school directors can relieve the situation to some extent. They may gain the consent of the city to allow those auxiliary school pupils

who are evidently kept back in their school work on account of the long walk to school to ride on the street cars at expense of the city.

6. Finally, intermissions in the auxiliary school's daily programme must be more carefully considered than for the regular school. Generally these recesses are from fifteen to twenty minutes long. However, the main thing is not that during a succession of five lessons lengthy and frequent pauses be made. Still more important is it that these pauses should really be used to refresh and enliven the weak pupils. They should breathe pure air free from dust, eat their luncheon, and move their limbs unrestrainedly by playing together or separately. To help them thus enjoy these recesses, the teacher in charge must always be on the watch. Here he has rich opportunity to make important observations and render valuable service to his coworkers.

X.—THE CURRICULUM.

For the public school it is no easy matter to answer all the many questions which arise in connection with the curriculum; especially do the choice and arrangement of the subject-matter, as the most important problems of this field, demand much discussion in order to reach any satisfactory solution. The pedagogy of the auxiliary school can claim still greater difficulty. The great differences existing among the pupils' natures give rise at the outset to the question: Is it possible to have a course of study for the auxiliary school which shall be adapted to the so-called average intellect? Of course, even if we can not, in this discussion, reach any definite, valid conclusion regarding particular points, we must recognize the necessity of a plan of work even if it be only in broad outline, for without this no conscious, and so no successful, work can be accomplished.

Formerly it was mainly public school teachers who attempted to draw up courses of study; their work betrayed its origin. They had generally brought with them from the public school a love of the subject-matter which was too great for the auxiliary school. Naturally a great deal of the subject-matter of the public school can not be introduced into the auxiliary school. So they simply took up the scissors and cut off a piece here and there—wherever there seemed too much. But in spite of this the worshipper of subject-matter still demanded his sacrifice.

Now, on the other hand, when teachers from institutions giving instruction in hygiene set to work to make a plan they are sure to fail, because they wish to have too little material. Naturally formation of habit seems more important to them than learning, education more valuable than mere instruction; and yet the auxiliary

school should, first of all, be a school in which stress is laid upon knowing many things, even if within narrow limits. So the auxiliary school curriculum must have neither too much nor too little material.

But how much material should it demand? No one will require the auxiliary school to set the same goal for itself as the highest class of the normal or regular school—not even a teacher who has completely fallen prey to didactic materialism.

Then let us lower our demands in general and ask only that the goal of the middle grade of a folk school be reached. This demand, so often expressed, has much in its favor. It emphasizes at the start that the standard is to be kept low. But, on the other hand, it can be said that the middle grade of a folk school does not attain all those several goals which the auxiliary school pupil can reach who meets with some little success. Let one only think of the realistic subjects which must be pursued further in the auxiliary school than in the middle grade of a folk school. Thus we see that it is not so easy to set, even in the most general way, a goal for auxiliary school work. To make any progress at all we must first be perfectly clear as to the answer to this question: What is, on the whole, the purpose of the auxiliary school?

The auxiliary school is an independent institution of education and instruction. It aims to develop in its pupils a standard of conduct which shall not differ from that of a worthy and useful member of human society. To this end all those subjects of instruction should be introduced into the auxiliary school which tend to awaken and control the individual will and impulses to action. According to their nature, such material must mainly be chosen from these subjects as will pave the way to a comprehension of a worthy, purposeful life. Through such a choice overcrowding of the curriculum is prevented, as well as mere preparation for a possible vocation. Taking this, then, as our general aim, we can now proceed to assign the scope of the several subjects:

1. Religion: The auxiliary school pupil must be led to an apprehension of the Divine. His duties to his neighbor and to himself, as well as to God, are to be brought to his comprehension. As an aid to his moral and religious feelings and actions he must accept the most important truths of Christianity, so as to be ready for confirmation in church.

2. By practice in observation, speaking, reading, and writing, he should be helped to understand and reproduce orally and in writing whatever he has seen, heard, or experienced.

3. History: By studying the lives of men and women who have worthily served home and fatherland, he should be taught to be willing to sacrifice anything for home and country. From a due

estimation of the present the problems arising out of it for each auxiliary school pupil are to be solved.

4. Drawing is to be used in every class as a means of expressing what the pupil has seen and heard. As such it offers a standard by which progress in intellectual and esthetic fields can be measured.

5. Manual labor: Like drawing, manual training, with its various branches, should direct the activities of auxiliary school pupils into those lines opened up by the other studies, and should facilitate the choice of a vocation later in life.

6. Singing and gymnastics: Both these departments have in the first place special hygienic purposes. Then, however, together they regulate, especially by their rhythmical character, the movements and with these the volitional life of the pupil. Finally, their common esthetic and recreative influence must not be undervalued.

7. Home geography (Heimatkunde) and general geography: The auxiliary school pupil is first of all to be made acquainted with his home surroundings; nevertheless, he must not be ignorant of any parts of the world with which his home has lively intercourse.

8. Arithmetic: Instruction in arithmetic shall present and show the application of those simple problems which are most often needed in daily life.

9. Natural history and nature study: The change of seasons is to be observed in the child's surroundings and the human body is to be made a subject of study, in the interest of his self-preservation and his life in common with others.

Having thus stated the aims of each subject, we must consider what subjects should come together and what should be the order of succession. Even if the old saying still holds good in the auxiliary school, "Proceed from the simple to the difficult," yet the simple must always predominate in the choice of material. A mastery of the whole of the elementary subject-matter of the folk school is not to be thought of. But in the arrangement of even the simple material the striving toward a whole, the outlook toward something complete, must be evident. Even if only small domains of thought can be mastered, they must be domains of thought which are connected with the developing, growing self, so that they form a foundation for the building up of moral and religious personality. But for this, it is not necessary that religious or objective fields should predominate and all others be subordinate to these. Trüper undertakes, it is true, and very laudably, to let the culture epochs, as worked out by Rein, act as centers around which the work is to be concentrated. So for children from 8 to 10 years old Robinson Crusoe is chosen as the basis of instruction in nature study, home geography, as well as for modeling, drawing, singing, German, and arithmetic. Fuchs recommends Robinson Crusoe as a suitable center for the concentration of

the auxiliary school pupils' studies, and really, if you have in mind training for work and for will power and control, you must agree with this recommendation. Robinson Crusoe is a classical model for the auxiliary school pupil with a weak will. But his example has more evident influence in a secluded educational institution than in a public school. The pupils of the latter already see too much of the world about them, with its devices and expedients. As a result, Robinson Crusoe does not concern them so much in his original helplessness as we should like to think. Taking into consideration the fact that many subjects do not adapt themselves to such correlation, but must be treated independently, as history and arithmetic with religion, we see that it is impossible to present plans for concentration as closely connected, organically related wholes. It will be difficult to make the auxiliary school pupil comprehend social aggregations in his vicinity which may, perhaps, be easily seen, such as the groupings of family, work, trade, etc. If, however, such social groups with their common needs are indicated in the plan of studies as home phenomena, and further appear more clearly in the plan of subject-matter, the auxiliary school is thereby preparing for practical life by giving circles of thought which are to a certain extent complete, and therefore effective. This completeness is as difficult as it is necessary. Whoever has undertaken to make a sketch of a curriculum or a course of study will confirm this and know that up to this time no model of value has been furnished. No individual worker will be able, on the whole, to solve the problem of the curriculum. Much preliminary work is lacking—for instance, there is no suitable reading book,^a primer, or arithmetic for the auxiliary school. Therefore the staff of an auxiliary school must annually consult together and decide what is to be accomplished by the different classes and each half year select subjects of study for them. This laborious work will gradually lead not only to a single core of material, but also to a rich selection of reading and memory pieces and arithmetical problems, which can finally be included in a reader and a sum book. How far this work has progressed at Halle may be seen from the following plans for the first and last school years. (See pp. 88-91.)

A course of study for the last school year presents the most difficulties and is therefore in its aims easily modified. If success has been met with in giving it a local and home background, then at least one kind of unity has been effected. The discovery of further threads of connection between the individual subjects must be held in reserve until it is more fully worked out, as by good fortune can be done on a uniform plan in the auxiliary school.

When we compare the requirements of the course of study in the finishing class with the ability of the pupils of the auxiliary school

^aAttempts have already been made at Leipzig and in Switzerland.

and see how high the final goals are set in one auxiliary school and how low in another, we must here express a wish that a unity may be evolved from out of this diversity. In this striving we must also decide whether the auxiliary school has to make provision for an education designed to help the girls for domestic service and to prepare the boys for manual labor. Finally, this question must be answered: How is the course of study of the auxiliary school to make room for that work which has to do with correcting errors in speaking, since we know a great many of the abnormal pupils frequently suffer from inability to speak properly. There has been introduced into many auxiliary schools special drill in articulation. In this regard the instructions of the Gutzmanns, of Berlin (father and son), certainly have a value. It may be well, also, to call favorably to mind at this time the prevailing practice which Auxiliary School Principal Godtfring, of Kiel, has introduced in the province of Schleswig-Holstein. Godtfring, who has also repeatedly published articles touching these matters, arranges to correct the speech of the children even before they reach school age. He gathers together into a sort of speech kindergarten all those children who do not speak normally and who will be of school age within half a year. Gradually he separates from these all those who, in spite of opportunity and drill in technical methods of speaking, are not cured of stammering and stuttering. The latter then are put into courses for curative pedagogical treatment, and in case of relapse after being cured are placed in the so-called "repetition" course for individual instruction. Godtfring's plan, which must have a special value in the auxiliary school, has the active support of the school authorities in Schleswig-Holstein.

Course of study for the first year.

Month.	Religion.	Object lessons.	Educational activities.	Arithmetic.	Gymnastics and singing.
April.....	Plants in spring: How God makes the flowers, bushes, and trees grow. "Frühlingszeit, schönste Zeit, Die uns Gott der Herr verleiht."	The school garden: What is to be seen in spring: Flowers, bushes, trees. Activities.	Play in the school garden: Sand piles, modeling in sand, and plays with children's garden tools. Songs for plays.	Without artificial devices, without abacus, the children learn to comprehend the numbers from 1 to 10 in closest connection with object lessons and practical work.	In accordance with the seasons and the other lessons, motion songs and songs for games are sung.
May.....	Animals in spring: How God has created birds and all animals and cares for them. "Lieber Gott, du gibst zu essen Allen Tieren in der Welt. Was da springt in Wald und Feld, Niemals wirst du sie vergessen."	The school garden: What is to be seen in spring: Song birds, butterflies, bees, snails, birds' nests.	Observation of occurrences in the school garden during the summer. During bad weather in the summer term and during the whole winter term the objects of the observation lessons are made by means of little sticks and the simpler forms drawn. For this purpose wooden sticks, four-cornered in white, round ones in colors, metal ones, and rings, are to be used.	Cf. Köhler, Die Bewegungsspiele des Kindergartens. Weimar, Böhlau.	Cf. Köhler, Die Bewegungsspiele des Kindergartens. Weimar, Böhlau.
June.....	How the child should treat God's creatures: "Wer nicht auch Tieren Gutes gönnt und tut, Der ist auch nicht von ganzem Herzen gut."	The school garden: What is done in summer. How the garden looks in summer.	At first the figures are determined with the aid of the teacher; later these figures are made by the children from memory, and finally they invent other forms.	Cf. Fr. Seidel, Die Bewegungsspiele und Lieder des Fröbelschen Kindergartens. Wien u. Leipzig Pichlers Witwe u. Sohn.	Cf. Fr. Seidel, Die Bewegungsspiele und Lieder des Fröbelschen Kindergartens. Wien u. Leipzig Pichlers Witwe u. Sohn.
August.....	How God makes the earth fruitful: "Wie die Sonne freundlich leuchtet, Wie sie's warm und fruchtbar macht. Der sie schuf, muss gern erfreuen, Muss ein lieber Vater sein."	The school garden: Man in the garden. Weather: Sunshine, rain.	Cf. F. Müller, Das Zeichnen nach Stäbchen auf der Unterstufe. Hamburg, Kloss, 1895.		
September.....	How God cares for us in spite of the rain. "Gott ist bei mir," from Heine-manns Lesebuch für das I. Schuljahr.	The school garden: Structures: Arbor, hot beds, beehives, fountains. Tools: Spade, rake, hoe, watering can.	The objects mentioned in the observation classes and work done there are to be described in writing, and the descriptions then read, using roman capital letters. This serves as an introduction to reading and writing.		
October.....	How God causes the fruit to ripen: "Thank the Lord, for He is good," etc. Everything good that I have is the gift of a kind God.	The school garden: What autumn brings us. Fruit and vegetable harvests.	Cf. E. Schulze, Der erste Lese- und Schreibunterricht in der Hilfsschule. Die Kinderlehre, 1903, 1.		
November.....	How God allows plants and animals to die off in autumn. "In unsers Vaters Garten, Da war's noch gestern grün," etc.	The school garden: What autumn takes from us. Signs of autumn in flowers, trees, and animals.			
December.....	The Christmas story: "I bring you tidings of great joy; unto you is born this day a Savior."	The school garden in winter: The snow covering. Christmas time and its joys.			

January.....	Conduct of pupils among themselves: "Die Kinder in der Schule klein, Die sollen wie die Blumen sein." Pupils' attitude toward the teacher: Obey your teachers and follow them.	The schoolhouse: The schoolroom, its parts and furniture. The schoolhouse: The schoolroom, its fur- nishings and their parts. The schoolhouse: The schoolroom and other parts of the building. The schoolhouse and school yard.
February.....		
March.....	Pupils' relation to their parents: Children, obey your parents.	

Course of study for the last school year.

Month.	Religion.	History.	Geography.	Natural Science.
April.....	Resurrection, ascension. "Jesus, meine Zuversicht," (1st verse). "Auf Christi Himmelfahrt allein" (1st verse). Whitsuntide. Founding of the Church; the most important Apostles. "Nun bitten wir den heiligen Geist" (1st verse). The old Germans become Christians. Boniface. "Mir nach, spricht Christus" (1st verse). Missions in foreign lands and here in Halle. There shall be one fold and one Shepherd (John, x, 16). Luther's life. "Ein feste Burg" (1st and 2d verses). The Reformation in Halle. Psalms, xvi, 2.	Life in a monastery, monasteries in Halle (starting from a picture). Life in a castle: Giebichenstein, Moritzburg at Halle. Life in an old German city. Age of inventions. Halle and the Thirty Years' war, Gustavus Adolphus. The "Great Elector" visits Halle.... Frederick in Halle. French and the inhabitants of the Palatinate in Halle. A. H. Francke. Frederick the Great; Rossbach, Leuthen.	The Elbe; Saxony..... The Elbe and the Oder; Brandenburg and Silesia. The Vistula; Posen, east and west Prussia. The Baltic; Pomerania..... The Weser; Hanover. The German Ocean; Schleswig-Holstein. The Rhine; Rhine Province and Westphalia. The Elbe; Saxony, Thuringian states. General view of the routes of commerce in north Germany. The Danube; Bavaria, Wurttemberg, Baden, Hessen. General view of the German Empire.. Neighboring States of Germany..... A glance at the globe. German colonies.	Our bodies (bones and their care). Our bodies (muscles and their care). Proper breathing and speaking. Our nourishment (foods and drinks). Our digestion (moderation, injurious food). Sense organs and their care (sight, feeling). Sense organs and their care (hearing, smell, and taste). What to do when ill. Help in case of accidents. Our homes, their heating and lighting. Our railways and other modern means of intercourse.
May.....				
June.....				
August.....				
September.....				
October.....				
November.....	The Bible and its arrangement. 2 Timothy, iii, 13. Jesus' youth and preparation for His work. Jesus' works (miracles)..... Jesus' works (teachings)..... Jesus' sufferings, resurrection, and ascension. Résumé of the life of Jesus.	Time of the war for freedom in Halle. (Queen Louise.) Scenes from the life of William I..... How the German Empire rose. Emperor Frederick III. Scenes from the life of our imperial family.		
December.....				
January.....				
February.....				
March.....				

German.	Arithmetic and Geometry.	Hand work.	Drawing.	Singing.	Gymnastics.
<p>(a) Reading: Selections for content is ethical, religious, and realistic, which is suggested by work in other branches.</p> <p>(b) Specimens: 5 or 10 specimen selections which are full of meaning are learned thoroughly according to form and content.</p> <p>(c) Grammar: In connection with suitable reading selections, exercises in copying from the book and writing down their own thoughts are given to help the pupils remember necessary forms for speaking and writing.</p> <p>(d) Composition: The children are taught to write down their experiences neatly and carefully; letters and the simplest business forms are made out.</p>	<p>(a) Arithmetic: The 4 fundamental rules, up to 1,000, in their simplest relations. Easy examples in fractions, giving special attention to decimals.</p> <p>Application of the rule of three to given cases.</p> <p>(b) Geometry: The shapes of the rectangle, parallelogram, trapezium, polygon, and the circle are to be recognized and distinguished.</p>	<p>(a) Boys: Scroll saw and joiner work, as far as is in keeping with the geometry, drawing, and natural science studied. How to keep one's clothes clean and neat.</p> <p>(b) Girls: Marking and mending of clothes. How to keep one's clothing clean and in good repair.</p>	<p>The principles of geometry are illustrated by drawings, making use of ruler and compass (geometrical drawing).</p>	<p>Besides continuous exercises in keeping time and in breathing, a number of such hymns and folk songs are to be learned as the church calendar, the seasons, and special holidays or events are likely to give the children occasion to use.</p>	<p>Gymnastic games, accompanied by music, as well as exercises with light apparatus, are practiced. In the summer term the gymnastic classes are held in the school garden. Garden work then takes the place of the gymnastic exercises.</p>

XI.—METHODS OF INSTRUCTION.

Before we can present the methods of teaching used in the auxiliary school we must show how much time each branch of study may claim during the week. This will be most quickly done by giving a summary in the form of a table. In the auxiliary school at Halle we have used the following plan:

Hours per week given to the several branches of study in the auxiliary school at Halle.

Branches of study.	Class.				
	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.
Religion.....	2	2	3	3	3
Arithmetic (geometry).....	4 (5)	4	4	4	4
German.....	7	7	6	6
Writing.....	1	1	2	2
Object lessons.....	4	4	9
Drawing.....	2 (1)	2	1
History.....	2	2
Geography.....	2	2
Nature study.....	2	2
Singing.....	2	2	2	1
Gymnastics.....	2	2	2	2	2
Hand work.....	4	4	4	4	4
Total.....	30	30	28	26	22

In the summer term a slight change is made on account of instruction in agriculture. The number of hours for hand work, gymnastic exercises, and singing is shortened so that four hours a week are left for garden work; the school excursions, too, often disarrange the tabulated numbers.

If the instruction given in the higher classes is considered, scarcely any difference will be noticed between the methods of the auxiliary school and those of the regular school; the intermediate classes have much the same management as that which promises success in the lower grades of the folk school; in the lower classes, however, the instruction given in the auxiliary school must be quite peculiar to it. The characteristic points of auxiliary school instruction have been clothed in many imperatives, as the instruction must be objective, concrete, personal, etc. However, these imperatives should apply to all instruction. In the lower classes of the auxiliary school the teacher has still other considerations to occupy him. The children just transferred from the regular to the auxiliary school are either incapable of receiving instruction, or are completely tired of school. Then he has not merely to awaken powers, but also to prevent many an intermitted development from remaining at a standstill. Besides this, he must see to it that his instruction has an educative influence upon the pupil, and this while he simplifies the subject-matter as much as possible. To fulfill these three demands in detail is very

hard, and yet we must strive to do this if we would make our auxiliary school instruction successful.

If mental powers are to be aroused, we must begin with that which stimulates them spontaneously and yet harmoniously, i. e., play. And it must be, of course, play which teaches the children so to use their limbs and sense organs that they will later obey a rational will and lead to such a doing of work as will effect the desired purpose. If one were to begin by making definite demands upon the will and to do work, his misdirected efforts would result only in frightening and dulling the pupil. The spontaneous use of limbs and sense organs first leads the teacher to take the proper direction. At this point he sees clearly how far—to agree with Boodstein—the limbs of a pupil are free in their movements and to what extent the sense organs can serve his attention by making his impressions precise and definite. Therefore we must first exercise the limbs by means of interesting plays, explore the circle of ideas and the powers of the will, that we may then proceed systematically to finally awaken the soul's slumbering powers.^a

These are then guided in various directions, as in that of speaking, drawing or painting, modeling or stick laying. Speech often becomes intelligible and fluent only after long-continued instruction in articulation; for this the teacher requires special preparation. Drawing or painting gives a still more exact test of what the pupil has taken in through his senses than speaking does. When no great demands are made upon him, fear is banished from his mind, and even the most easily discouraged pupil will soon try to do something. Therefore, after a short time the teacher can discover from what he has done what sort of a mind the little artist with the slate pencil has; and the teacher will see, too, the progress the pupil is making, if his drawings are collected and made into a book.

Similar insight into the inner life of the pupil is given by modeling, though this is a great deal more difficult. For this reason it is often left out of the school work; it is important, however, and an attempt should be made to introduce it even into the lowest class. Stick laying is, indeed, much simpler; the Froebelian occupations in connection with the "gifts" are similarly easy. How active are the little minds when they can do something, accomplish something! They must be kept continually active during the lessons, must always be seeing, observing, feeling, measuring, placing, arranging, comparing, distinguishing, hearing, smelling, or tasting, whatever the work

^a Delitzsch recommends an exact psychological diagnosis in order to find out definitely regarding defects in the senses, i. e., of sight, touch, hearing, taste, smell, the feeling of heat, cold, or pain, as well as a diagnosis of the association of ideas, speech, and the emotional and volitional life.

may be. At the same time they must be allowed to talk. While playing at work and working at play they should express their opinions, ask questions, and give answers.

If during the child's instruction he is striving to seek and to find, and to change his impressions into action, into movements, then the auxiliary school instruction serves a double purpose: (1) It avoids mere mechanical training and reducing to a uniform level; (2) it develops the motor center of the brain as the basis of the intellectual, and especially of the volitional, life. The children are then not merely receptive, passive, but always active and interested. They live through in a measure what the instruction offers them. This is the case in the school garden and the school excursions even more than in the class room, and there can not possibly be too many of these excursions. The teacher has but few devices to help him in such instruction; playthings and Froebelian "gifts" are probably his only helpers during the first school year. Outside of these the teacher must be all in all to his pupils. Therefore his task is not easy. Even the primer is lacking, which so early pushes itself in between the teacher of the regular school and his pupils as a dividing wall of paper. Long may it be kept out of the lowest class of the auxiliary school! There nothing should be read, written, or memorized which might be found in a primer. Now, is the pupil not to read so soon, and write, and memorize poems? If there is to be no drill in the auxiliary school, then postpone the "drei Eisheligen"^a as long as possible, for they soon kill the happy life—the cheerfulness—of the school. It would probably be early enough if reading and writing were introduced in the second year in connection with block and stick laying. The memorizing of stories and poems can also be left till later if we would continue to shield the children from indigestible "pebble-stones" (Kieselsteine), i. e., give them bread instead of stones. If, however, one desires to exercise the memory of the pupils, suitable selections must be made, and an eagerness to learn them awakened in the children. Trojan, Löwenstein, and others give excellent short poems in their collections (Kinderlieder, Kindergärten, or Kinderlauben).

In this way, and by this method, the teacher may hope to awaken the weak little minds. For those pupils, however, who already have suffered shipwreck in their school life, and of whom people have not hesitated to declare that their mental development was at a standstill, another method of teaching must be chosen. For these pupils the instruction must be such as will take right hold of their

^a This expression refers to the cold and blighting weather which popular tradition assigns to the 11th, 12th, and 13th of May. The cold of these saints' days is frequently disastrous to budding fruit.—TRANSLATOR.

minds. Therefore, for this purpose nothing colorless must be presented; the teacher must either proceed from the pupil's previous experiences, or make the pupil live through the experiences of others by a progressive portrayal of them. Of course, play and work will still have their places in stimulating movements and ideas, but the stimulations and demands upon the pupil must now be stronger and more vigorous. Moreover, the instruction must vary as much as possible, that the pupil's mental inertia may be overcome, and his self-confidence developed.

Now, let no one think that continual stimulation and change, or ceaseless activity during the lesson, injure the weak intellect rather than benefit it. Let him not be afraid of over-stimulating erethistic pupils (for example). If the teacher retains his fatherly attitude toward the pupils and carefully watches over their mental qualities, requires short steps of them, he will soon be encouraged by their progress. And the progress is not merely intellectual in its nature, no, there will be both physical and mental progress. The instruction in the auxiliary school will therefore be harmoniously educative.

We have already shown that instruction in the lower grades of the auxiliary school needs but few means of assistance; Froebel's "gifts" and all kinds of playthings are in the main to be regarded as sufficient. In addition, biblical illustrations and Stöwesand's picture of the family, as well as pictures from magazines, are to be recommended. The more capable the pupils become the more extensive will be the use of illustrative material, until finally, in the intermediate and higher classes it must be used just as much as in a well-equipped regular school.

To the statement made above, that the method of instruction in the intermediate and higher classes will differ but little from that of the folk school, we wish now to make several additions. It is the general opinion that it is an advantage to connect the new material of instruction with knowledge already possessed, but this connection of old ideas and new must become a matter-of-course rule in auxiliary school instruction. Whenever the case admits it, we must start out from the relations in the home, outside the school, and on the street; an effort must be made to make new material plain to the pupil by means of plastic instruction. Only then will it be grasped and mere verbal instruction kept aloof. Nevertheless, it will often be a long time before the material of instruction can be treated logically. The children are often easily wearied and refuse to respond, much to the surprise of the teacher, who thought he was on the right track. To prevent such surprises it has been suggested that the material of instruction be mastered by a spiral method. This method of working through a subject, which is so much used, can not be regarded as a "cure-all." Only mechanically is a little new connected with the

old by it, and always a return must be made to the starting point. If anyone is concerned with implanting mere word knowledge the spiral method will seem easy and always applicable. If, however, one wishes to educate by his instruction, to use the material of instruction for cultural purposes, he can get along without this method. If only the teacher understands how to bring about immanent repetition, i. e., to present the old in a new form through the new material or to recall it to the pupil's mind from new points of view, he will make progress, slowly, it is true, but surely. The children will not then be wearied by mere repetition of subject-matter, but will be kept always mentally active. The necessary condition for this is a teacher who is himself active and never gets weary or doubts. His task is therefore no easy one, as we have said before.

Since abnormal children often lack clear ideas regarding time, motion, and space, the instruction in all the classes must especially be directed to the development of these ideas by means of systematic and suitable exercises. Demoor has very properly pointed this out. Therefore the date of the birthdays of the children of every class, for example, must be dwelt on; the time of happening of all kinds of school events is to be determined, and the time of day read from the clock. In their movements great stress must be laid upon accuracy and proper rhythm. Music is of great assistance in this, and in the Brussels auxiliary school the employment of music has led to the formation of so-called "eurhythmical" exercises, which we heartily recommend. In order to accustom the eye to relations of magnitude and estimating magnitudes in space, measuring sticks should be kept in the class rooms and the school yard and compared with newly found magnitudes. The school walks are constantly bringing forward new space relations, and gradually help to arrange and make clear the pupils' vague ideas on this subject.

Finally, in characterizing the auxiliary school instruction, it may be well to refer to the thoroughly practical direction which it must take in all its branches, if at all possible. Here we are thinking especially of arithmetic, whose aims have been already characterized as taking their rise in practical life. The teacher of arithmetic has to illustrate the business dealings into which the auxiliary school pupil will later enter. There must be in the school a kind of store,^a with merchandise, coins, and weights, so that he will become familiar with the operations of buying and selling. Further, now and again a newspaper is to be used in the higher class, so that the growing child may learn something about the labor market, about supply and demand, in order that he may later choose his field of work independently. Brief compositions and letters may also serve the same

^a Director Schwenk, of Idstein, makes use of such a store in his institution.

purpose, and these will be written willingly and with considerable care.

We must not fail to mention here that the school can render valuable service to the candidates for confirmation by helping them to be less awkward and showing them how to conduct themselves on the street and in all their circles of intercourse. The auxiliary school teacher must do his best to keep his weakly endowed pupils from stumbling on their later path of life and to help them to be as independent as possible. Experience teaches that this kind of effort on the part of the auxiliary school may bring about very satisfactory results.

XII.—DISCIPLINE IN THE AUXILIARY SCHOOL.

Again and again it has been said that the auxiliary school should retain its character as a school institution, but that, more than is the case with any other, its instruction should be educative. Fortunately, it has not to cover so much ground, and so it can make its subject-matter cultural in its influence more easily than the regular school can do, if only the right methods of teaching are used.

Of what value to the auxiliary school pupil is memory work, which burdens rather than inspires? In his case, also, it is true that the ability to do things is better than knowledge. But this ability must be in the service of a rational will, if the youth just entering upon life is to be a useful member of human society.

(a) THE SCHOOL'S CARE OF THE SOUL.

In this place we are not treating of education in general, but of psychological dietetics, or care of the soul and discipline in the school, in particular. In reality, these are not different in the auxiliary school from what they are in the normal or regular school. The peculiarities of the pupils alone demand a special form. People think in this way: The auxiliary school pupils have weak natures, physically and mentally; consequently they claim consideration and kindness as the only measures in the educational scale. Now, the auxiliary school teacher will certainly have to show great consideration and kindness wherever it is a question of discipline in the auxiliary school. But even in the case of normal children, kindness, if used alone, will have anything but the desired results. How much more is this true of weakly endowed children. They are just the ones who need to strengthen their weak wills by contact with a firm, forceful one. If the teacher always complies with their wishes and submits to their wills, they will never learn to distinguish good and bad

desires and to suppress their selfish impulses. For this reason there must be rigid discipline in the auxiliary school.

So also refusals and warnings must work upon the child soul. But this must never develop into a drill which kills all love. Moreover, many words too often fail in their purpose, and as a rule impatience works only lasting harm. Calmness and perseverance alone lead to a good end, which is reached so much the more surely if a friendly understanding is first arrived at and friendly stimulation exerted. But in many cases a self-confidence which is almost dead has to be reawakened and supported until it can make its way independently.

The reign of firm discipline in the auxiliary school for the most part does not first show itself in special regulations or warnings. The spirit of order, of time distribution prevailing in it, the spirit of punctuality and accuracy in work, will act effectively, especially if the teacher sets a worthy, forcible example by his faithfulness in little things and his own submission to the whole.

In addition to this example, which is always subject to change, the ever unchanging in art can be brought in as an ally and helper in the auxiliary school. In our sketch of the ideal schoolhouse we said that it was desirable to have the walls of the class rooms decorated with mottoes and pictures. We must now point out (as Professor Sante de Sanctis has proven so convincingly in his annual report of the asylum school at Rome) that works of art, as presenting to the view good deeds and beautiful examples, may also furnish models for the auxiliary school pupil, who so constantly needs good models. Recently it has been very properly brought into prominence that the æsthetic can serve the moral. Therefore, let the walls of the schoolrooms be decorated with suitable pictures, not alone that the school may be made a pleasant place for the child brought up in often miserable surroundings, but rather that by looking so often at beautiful representations his memory for moral things will develop, and art will thus have won a place as an educative influence in the auxiliary school.

But, besides this, the auxiliary school teacher will need to use other and special direct means of discipline; certainly he can not dispense with these. As is well known, there are a great many of them. But he must not use the most extreme measures at once, even if this would shorten the process for him. In the great majority of cases a well-graded system of rewards will lead to more good than a scale of punishments which is consistent, but carried out in a heartless way. Encouragement and praise always help to arouse self-confidence, while corporal punishment often brings about bad results. Consequently corporal punishment has been condemned in all cases, and that not alone by the doctors. But other voices have been raised in

advocating a resort to this means of discipline in the education of abnormal children. Ziehen says: "Bodily punishments are not to be entirely done away with, but they must never be inflicted on the head;" and Schwenk declares: "If, therefore, the teacher is firmly convinced that the pupil knows exactly what has been forbidden, and in spite of repeated commands, reminders, admonitions, and warnings, persists in carrying out his own bad will, then there is no other way out of it, the proverb must be applied: 'Who will not hear must feel,' and, as we know from experience, birch-rod writing (hölzerne Schrift) upon the boy's back does him exceptionally good service."

(b) THE SCHOOLS' CARE OF THE BODY.

The physical condition of the auxiliary school pupil demands continually the most careful consideration. Any injury to the body often directly hinders the mental development. Therefore the school physician has not only to establish the health condition of the pupil, but he must also watch him continually. In this the auxiliary school teachers can be of great service to him. They observe the children every day in the classes, on the playground, and in the garden, and if they are good observers and know something of hygiene, they acquire the faculty of noticing changes in the appearance and conduct of their pupils. In cases of sudden illnesses or slight accidents they can use for their relief medicines which the medicine chest contains by the directions of the physician. Their proper use may do a great deal of good and very materially lighten the work of the physician. But much more could be done for the care of the pupils' bodies if the parents would cooperate with the physician and the teachers. It has already been shown how the doctor may influence them when occasion offers. But how often must it be done with the cooperation of the teachers, if the physical condition of this or that pupil is really to be improved! If many parents were not so inaccessible to well-meant advice, special "parents' evenings" might be arranged for in the auxiliary school. How many questions and problems demand a joint discussion and solution, and in how many cases must the parents' consciences be sharpened in order to make them introduce a better method of life into their homes! Unfortunately the difficulties are too great for us to aim at influencing in mass. Therefore there is no way out of it but summoning the individual parents to the school and there giving them words of advice. They may also be greatly helped in deeds by the public care for their weak children, giving some free transportation on the street railways, others a warm breakfast in winter.

The evident necessity of giving tonics to auxiliary school pupils, and the want of understanding on the part of their parents, which

is just as apparent, have brought up the following question: Is the auxiliary school to remain simply a day school, with a limited time of influence, or is it to develop into a boarding school? Worthy representatives of the "curative educational institutions" (Heilziehungsanstalten) consider the boarding school as the best arrangement. In this connection Heller says: "We desire most heartily that very many auxiliary schools may, in the course of time, even if only gradually, become regular boarding schools." Piper says, to be sure: "To be able to properly answer the question, 'Auxiliary school or special institution?' one must spend years in careful observation of individual cases in even their smallest details. * * *

The author indeed recognizes the value of day auxiliary schools, but he also knows that the principals of auxiliary schools are striving to make them boarding schools, and even now try to obtain the good results of the latter by insisting on the schools' feeding the mentally deficient children intrusted to them and on keeping them at the school as long as possible. Serious enough does the question seem to them, 'What becomes of our pupils daily when they leave our care?'" Certainly everyone could agree in general with these statements. The longer the auxiliary school pupil is under the influence of the school, the more effective its influence will be. Our auxiliary school pupils can very seldom be well cared for in their homes. They see there little that is good, and, on the other hand, often receive lasting impressions of unwholesome conditions. So the pupils' withdrawal from parental influence may often be very desirable.

But even at Leipzig, where the pupils are not only fed, but formed into voluntary classes for busy work, this step has not yet been taken, and the school preserves its day character. At Halle also, and probably in other places with fully developed auxiliary schools, this step will not be taken. In spite of certain undeniable imperfections, the day school gives a better opportunity to fit the pupil for life in the hard world than the closed institution. In the school the child must be inured to resist the evil influences of his companions of the street, and even of his family. He must not be kept in leading strings too long. The pupils are not idiots, whose personality can never be firmly established.

Besides all this, institutional education offers many difficulties. Not only is it very expensive, but it demands also greater services from the educators. Even a day school for mentally deficient children makes serious demands upon the teacher, and the results of his efforts are not always certain. Still less certain, perhaps, will they be in an institution, which sometimes is, as Görke asserts, a downright breeding place for certain vices, such as masturbation, talebearing, etc., if, we may add, the supervision is inadequate. At all events,

then, we must preserve the character of the day school, keep the children at school as long as possible during the day, and send them home for the night.

XIII.—PREPARATION OF AUXILIARY SCHOOL PUPILS FOR CONFIRMATION.

For a long time people have had the idea that mentally deficient children are especially gifted religiously; this gift has even been pointed to as compensation for the lack of purely intellectual ability. Such an opinion has repeatedly been supported by the fact that not merely hysterical children tend to show religious enthusiasm, but mentally weak children seem to be able to memorize a surprising amount of religious material. Consequently, in religious instruction such children have been overfed with biblical history and dogmas. Since this instruction has been given by auxiliary school teachers, however, this overfeeding has been done away with by them. It is probably now generally recognized as true, what was said by Inspector Landenberger in the school and annual reports of the Hygienic Institution for the Care of Mental Defectives and Epileptics, and confirmed by the psychiatrists A. Römer and W. Weygandt, viz, that one-sided overloading of the memory with religious material, as with any other, is harmful rather than helpful.

If the teacher knows how to bring the pupil under the guidance and chastening of God by his religious instruction, and to present the divine guidance and chastening as much as possible from his own experience and his own yielding to discipline, he does not need all the helps which the mentally normal child requires, such as the history of the stages in the development of the kingdom of God, and the established dogmas in epic or lyric form. And even in preparing pupils for confirmation, he does not need to amplify all these. The auxiliary school pupil will neither be an active vestryman, nor will he take part in discussions regarding religions and creeds. But he will manifest his Christianity just as everyone who can be only of the "silent in the land." For this the instruction for confirmation must prepare him.

It must first be determined what ideas the children bring with them from the public school. As a rule their religious knowledge will be small; besides this, the auxiliary school pupils bring with them, from the various classes, varied powers of receptivity and varied degrees of activity. Therefore the teacher must become very well acquainted with the mental qualities of the candidates for confirmation if he would properly estimate and benefit each one. Such an analytic and personal method can not be used, however, when the pastor takes all

the children in hand for preparatory instruction, and the auxiliary school pupil is placed among candidates for confirmation who come from the regular school. The pastor may scatter as many seeds of divine truth as he will, yet the auxiliary school pupil will go away empty. And if, when among his cleverer fellows, he is asked even an easy question, he will fail in these new surroundings and be made sport of. The result will be that not merely a dissatisfied, but a confused and puzzled soul will come up for confirmation. Such results must and can be avoided. Above all things, the weakly endowed pupils are to be kept away from the confirmation instruction in which the normal children share.

If this is admitted, we must next decide who should instruct this group of candidates from the auxiliary school—the pastor or the teacher. In many cities, as, for example, in Halle, a clergyman takes charge of this difficult task. Two days in the week the school principal has a class room made ready for this purpose, so that the preparation for confirmation partakes, from the start, of the character of school instruction. The pastor is in every case the youngest one in the church parish in which the schoolhouse and its auxiliary classes are situated. As assistant pastor, he naturally will not stay very long in this parish, so that frequent changes are made. This young clergyman is not previously questioned by his superiors as to whether he has sufficient inclination and ability to carry on this difficult work. He does it as well as he can; his conscience is the only judge of his performance. Would it not mean a desirable relieving of this conscience if the church authorities in charge should declare: “He alone is fitted to prepare the candidates from the auxiliary school for confirmation who has known the pupils the most intimately and for the longest time?” Since the older clergymen of the parish already are burdened with several confirmation classes, they can not be called upon to give this instruction, which would require special study on their part. In the interest of the clergymen and of the children of the auxiliary school, as well as in the interest of the kingdom of God upon earth, the instruction for confirmation must be given into the hands of the oldest teacher, or of the principal, of the auxiliary school. More or less recently this step has already been taken in Brunswick, Breslau, Kassel, Dresden, Görlitz, and Königsberg. Generally this special duty is given over to the teacher or principal by the consistory, with the privilege of recalling the appointment at any time. Beyond this, the higher church authorities reserve the right of supervision. They cause the city superintendent to visit the school once or twice a year, have him hold an examination a short time before the confirmation, and allow the candidates for confirmation from the auxiliary school to be handed over to their parochial clergymen for, perhaps, three or four weeks more, that

they may take their confirmation vows along with the other children on the general day of confirmation. For this purpose, at the very beginning of his preparation for confirmation, the personal record of each should be given to the clergyman in charge, so that he may in good season influence, as spiritual guide, also those children who have not yet come under his instruction, and their parents.

The confirmation ceremony and the first communion of the auxiliary school pupils at Halle, in the presence of the teachers of the institution, was always quite solemn and impressive, but the ceremony made the impression upon one, however, that the pupils of this institution for the care and education of defectives were being confirmed under special and abnormal conditions. The auxiliary school pupils, at the age of confirmation at least, should feel that they can live among companions of their own age without noticeable peculiarities.

As material of instruction the Ten Commandments are, above all, to be used, and these are to be treated with especial regard to practical life. Kielhorn makes excellent suggestions regarding methods of presenting them to candidates from the auxiliary school. Then, in addition to the Commandments, there are the three articles of the creed, the Lord's Prayer, the command for baptism, and the sacramental words of the holy communion. Of course Luther's explanation of these parts of the catechism is to be used. The purpose of confirmation should be made very clear to the pupils.

XIV.—THE COMMUNITY AND THE STATE IN THEIR RELATIONS TO THE AUXILIARY SCHOOL.

The modern State, and under it the community, have not merely the right and the duty to care for the spreading and deepening of culture; both have also to take charge of the economically inefficient. As a rule, the mentally weak are the economically inefficient; therefore the auxiliary school is no matter of luxury or a play of surplus financial powers. It is rather a humanitarian duty, which demands true manhood. Nevertheless, in the social life of different communities ideal impulses and philanthropic sentiments could not long avail if the real background of self-preservation did not speak a plain language.

Naumann very properly says: "To keep up the lowest class of the people means insurance against great losses to the whole." The auxiliary school pupils come from the lowest class of a city community. Since their ability to gain a livelihood is but small if they have not been specially trained and accustomed to work, the whole community has later to take action in their behalf. Either the aux-

iliary school pupil becomes a loafer and a tax upon the poor funds or a vagabond upon the public highways. Both are unwelcome members of a community. Not only are they unwelcome, they are highly injurious to the social body. Mental deficiency, even in its lesser forms and aspects, is, as is well known, often the cause of all kinds of misdemeanors and crimes. Weak-mindedness, however, when joined with a dislike of work, is still more detrimental. So by neglecting the mentally and economically inefficient a city incurs expenses for the care of the poor, expenses for the suppression of vagrancy, and, finally, expenses for the maintenance of criminals. This means, therefore, that the maintenance of auxiliary schools is an insurance against greater losses. A comparison of expenses for the year will probably show that money has been saved, for if the efforts to make these weak ones capable of earning a livelihood and thus to add useful members to a community are successful, its powers are increased, even if they are but small factors in the community life. The establishment and maintenance of auxiliary schools is therefore not merely a worthy humanitarian duty, but also a social necessity; and economic considerations generally speak convincingly in the larger administrative bodies. Now, the larger cities have, indeed, shown hitherto a gratifying rivalry in the matter of auxiliary schools, and the State has not only given its customary consent, but has not refused to recognize the newly created institutions.

But the task of the State and the community by no means ends with the present auxiliary school organization. A whole series of longings, which now and again have been clearly enough expressed, must still be realized. In the first place, compulsory attendance on the auxiliary school, which has elsewhere (p. 47) been demanded, should be enforced by the State. Under the conditions specified, parents should be obliged by law to send their children to an auxiliary school. Next, the school period should be extended to the end of the fourteenth year. It has been suggested that it would be well to keep all auxiliary school pupils in the school at least one year after the age of confirmation.

More far-reaching and beneficial, however, is the demand that a special continuation school, with compulsory attendance and a course covering several years, should be established for poorly endowed children. Really it is not advisable to transfer confirmed pupils from the auxiliary school to the continuation trade schools of the cities; that would mean that all those evil conditions would again be brought about which the auxiliary school has tried so hard to do away with. The difference in the school knowledge of the former auxiliary school pupils would of itself be especially troublesome to the teacher of the continuation school. Consequently a special class would have to be

instituted in that school. That religion, reading, writing, and arithmetic would have to be continued in it is probably not questioned by anyone, but at the same time economic, civic, and religious virtues must be cultivated.

Besides these indispensable theoretical duties, the continuation school for poorly endowed children has also purely practical ones to perform. For this purpose, therefore, so-called "preparatory workshops" must be established, which teach objectively the most elementary forms of those trades which are to be most highly recommended to pupils from the auxiliary school. Mental defectives will seldom be able to create masterpieces. It is enough if they only become intelligent underworkers and helpers in straw plaiting, basket making, bookbinding, cabinetmaking, or to stone masons, shoemakers, gardeners, farm hands, bricklayers, etc. Even if many of these trades can not be taught in workshops, visits to places where work is being done, followed by discussions, will partially make up for this. If emphasis is laid upon this practical training, the continuation school for mental defectives can give a vocation to hundreds of unfortunates who would otherwise fail in life, and this vocation will make them efficient and therefore useful and respectable members of human society.

For the auxiliary school pupil, moreover, the choice of a vocation would be postponed for years by the continuation school, and so he would be enabled to make a wiser decision. It is always hard to discover in good season the best line of work for young people. The children of the auxiliary school consent to all kinds of proposals, and the parents seldom show understanding or deep interest in this matter. So the decision often rests with the teacher and the physician. They can surmise, if they can not know exactly, what the child's mental and physical equipment will be, as well as his later desires and abilities. By their counsel they can prevent the changes in vocation which the weak-minded pupil is so prone to make.

The most important thing of all, however, they can not do alone, i. e., seek out suitable positions. How often parents who have been turned away by employers come to the auxiliary school principal and beg him to try to help their child to secure a position. Sometimes, indeed, the school's intercession is of service, but master mechanics do not care to have much to do with apprentices from the auxiliary school. Therefore K. Richter's wish is justifiable: "Would that our master mechanics at home would realize that the children who go out from the auxiliary schools are not as incompetent as is generally thought, but that, on the contrary, they often excel in practical affairs boys taken into apprenticeship from the country or elsewhere without anything being known about them, and doubly reward the

benevolent work of instructing them, if only the master does not leave this teaching in the hands of an assistant, but looks after it himself and is kind and patient with the boys."

A similar wish might be expressed in regard to the placing of girls in stores and factories, as in families which need servants or waiting maids. But will both wishes be considered carefully enough, and will masters and employers of servants use the personal records and individual lists of the auxiliary school? The realization of these wishes presupposes much benevolence of spirit. The State, however, could aid in this, as could private benevolence, to some extent at least. Let the State set aside rewards for such master mechanics as can prove that former auxiliary school pupils have answered all the demands of a guild in their training. According to K. Richter's reports, on special motion of the Royal Saxon minister of the interior, a premium of 150 marks is granted in such a case. Perhaps this example will be imitated in other States. A wider influence can be exerted, however, by the activities of associations in cities having auxiliary schools. In Leipzig, Königsberg, and Berlin auxiliary school societies and associations for the care of backward children already exist. The characteristic portions of the statutes of the associations of these cities are as follows:

ASSOCIATION FOR THE EDUCATION AND CARE OF BACKWARD
(MENTALLY DEFICIENT) CHILDREN. (BERLIN.)

[Chartered association.]

I. NAME, LOCATION, AND PURPOSE OF THE ASSOCIATION.

§ 1. The Association for the Education and Care of Backward (Mentally Deficient) Children, founded March 26, 1903, has its headquarters in Berlin.

§ 2. The Association for the Education and Care of Backward (Mentally Deficient) Children aims to awaken and promote interest in and understanding of the culture and education of backward (mentally deficient) children and to cooperate in the mental, physical, moral, and economic advancement of these minors.

§ 3. This aim is attained:

A.

1. By lectures and discussions of topics in the fields of instruction and education in question, especially of the present practice in the care of mental defectives at home and abroad, by the description of typical institutions and typical organizations before the association, before other associations, or public assemblies.

2. By the discussion of pertinent literature, of ordinances and decrees of State and district authorities.

3. By scientific treatment of pertinent questions, the publication of suitable aids to teaching, etc., discussions in professional magazines and in the daily press.

4. By visiting establishments (classes, schools, institutions) for the care of mental defectives, meetings of societies, and conventions.

5. By establishing a central bureau of information.

B.

By the development of practical care taking. This care taking shall strive to bring about—

1. For all mental defectives who need it—

- (a) Provision for better care, clothing, and food.
- (b) The establishment of homes for children, refuges (day homes with board), and suitable care during vacations.
- (c) The placing of the children under proper care, either private or in some institution, according to the nature of the case.
- (d) Their seasonable committal to suitable educational institutions.
- (e) The appointment of care takers and professional assistants, who are continually to watch over the education of the children, have supervision of the proper use of materials at the disposal of the executive council, instruct and advise parents, guardians, care takers, overseers, and employers of labor.
- (f) The formation of school committees in connection with the schools concerned.

2. For those who have got through school—

- (a) In cooperation with parents, guardians, and teachers, to advise the children as soon as possible before their dismissal from the school regarding their choice of a vocation.
- (b) To point out reliable foremen and employers of labor who would be likely to exert a beneficial and educative influence upon these youths and further their technical training.
- (c) To take care of these children when they are not cared for in homes.
- (d) In connection with the school, to establish continuation courses, evening technical classes, and homes for apprentices and girls in order to help those who have left school to make proper use of their spare time.
- (e) To help specially needy children to gain a more adequate education by means of stipends, assistance from existing benevolent foundations, associations, and funds.
- (f) To grant aid in special cases of need and when dangers threaten them in public life on account of their deficient ability.

II. MEMBERSHIP.

§ 4. Adults of both sexes, without distinction of vocation, political party, or religion, as well as organizations, officials, and corporations, may be members of this association.

§ 5. Membership may be gained by declaring one's intention to enter as—

- (a) helper.
- (b) professional assistant.
- (c) paying member.
- (d) life member.
- (e) patron.

§ 6. Members of the association have equal rights regarding the management of the association. In the general assembly each member of the association has a vote, in the council each of its own members has a vote, and in neither case is vote by proxy permitted.

§ 7. The helpers, who work in connection with the schools, bind themselves to do their utmost to accomplish the purposes set forth in § 2 and § 3, according to a special regulation.

§ 8. When requested by the council or its individual members, each professional assistant must give information regarding his own vocation or his chosen field of work, and also must give advice of his own accord regarding affairs in his department which can have significance in the education of mentally deficient children, as in connection with apprenticeship, labor, wages.

§ 9. The professional assistants and helpers do not need to pay any membership fee. Each year the paying members pay into the treasury of the association any amount they choose, at least, however, three marks.

§ 10. Life members make one payment of at least a hundred marks; patrons at least five hundred marks. Persons who serve the association in any special way may be elected honorary members of the main body.

§ 11. Membership is lost—

- (a) by expressed desire to withdraw.
- (b) for paying members, by two failures to pay the annual fee.
- (c) by decision of the general assembly upon recommendation of the council.

III. ORGANIZATION OF THE ASSOCIATION.

§ 12. The work of the association is carried on by an executive council and the general assembly. Both bodies can appoint committees and commissions for special service, and to these others beside the members of the executive council may be appointed.

A pedagogical commission, whose president must always be a teacher, enters upon its work at once, and its duties are regulated by special by-laws. This commission has the right to expend, for its own purposes, moneys which have been appropriated for its special work without having to gain the permission of the executive council.

The treasurer of the association is required to keep special account of the same.

A. THE EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

§ 13. The executive council is elected by the general assembly for a period of three years beginning January 1; one-third go out each year. Re-election is permissible. The first elections are for the period from 1903 to December 31, 1905. Lots shall be cast to determine whose terms shall expire in 1903 and 1904.

§ 14. The executive council consists of—

- (a) a president and two vice-presidents.
- (b) a secretary and two assistant secretaries.
- (c) a treasurer and his assistant.
- (d) six other members.

§ 15. A special schedule of work specifies the duties of each member of the executive council.

§ 16. The executive council carries on the current business of the association. It meets when occasion demands, if possible, at least once a month.

§ 17. The executive council represents the association in all its relations, and especially in court. The president and a second member of the executive council may sign papers in the name of the association.

§ 18. The secretary must do all the written work for the association.

§ 19. The treasurer must collect the revenues of the association, take charge of the treasury and the funds of the association, make payment when directed to do so by the president, and keep all accounts.

§ 20. In case any officer is unable to perform his duties his assistant is promoted to the position.

§ 21. All moneys which in the opinion of the executive council are not needed to carry on its regular work are to be invested as securely as are the funds of minor children. The council has the power to decide regarding the withdrawal of such funds from investment.

B. THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY.

§ 22. The general assembly meets at least once a year. With it alone lies the power to examine into the affairs of the executive council, as well as into the report of its work (especially of the treasurer), to elect new members of the executive council, and finally to decide regarding the expulsion of a member and regarding changes in the statutes of the association. The report of the treasurer is accepted only after his accounts have been audited by two members of the association appointed each year by the general assembly. These must not be members of the executive council.

IV. SPECIAL RULES FOR THE MANAGEMENT OF THE ASSOCIATION.

§ 23. In addition to the regulations laid down in the schedule of work, the following special rules guide in the management of the association:

The president sets the date for the regular meetings of the executive council as long beforehand as practicable. To other meetings the members of the executive council are given written invitations; the call for meetings of the general assembly shall be published at least fourteen days before the date of meeting in the following newspapers: *Die Vossische Zeitung*, *Die Post*, *Das Berliner Tageblatt*, and *Der Lokalanzeiger*. The executive council may publish other notices of any meeting of the general assembly if it is deemed advisable.

§ 24. The president must call a special meeting of the executive council when three members make a written motion to that effect, stating the object; an extra session of the general assembly when one-fourth of the members of the association propose it in like manner.

§ 25. For the regular meetings of the executive council one-third of the members constitute a quorum; in the general assembly no quorum is necessary.

§ 26. A majority vote carries a measure; in case of a tie the president casts the deciding vote. For the expulsion of a member or a change in the statutes a two-thirds majority of the voting members is required.

§ 27. If a member of the executive council can not or will not accept an office to which he has been chosen or continue therein, the members have the right to appoint one of their number in his place for the rest of his term of office. In like manner the executive council may complete its membership from the membership of the association.

§ 28. The minutes of the executive council are authenticated by the signatures of the president and secretary, those of the general assembly by the signatures of the president, secretary, and three members of the executive council.

§ 29. Only a vote of three-fourths of the members present in the general assembly can dissolve the association after it has been decided in a previous meeting by a two-thirds majority that the question of the dissolution of the association will be brought up at its next meeting.

If the dissolution of the association is decided upon, its possessions are turned over, conserving the rights of third parties, to the municipal authorities of Berlin, requiring them to use them in the spirit of the constitution of this association.

ORDER OF BUSINESS OF THE COMMISSION FOR THE INSTRUCTION AND EDUCATION OF BACKWARD (MENTALLY DEFICIENT) CHILDREN. (LEIPZIG.)

1. PURPOSE.

The Commission for the Instruction and Education of Mentally Deficient Children aims to gain a pedagogical insight into the real nature of these children, to discover the best methods which lead to the instruction and education of them, as well as the school organization which would best meet their needs.

2. ORGANIZATION.

The commission will strive to gain this purpose by holding meetings, by arranging for courses of lectures, by founding a library with pertinent literature, by maintaining a reading room with suitable magazines, by arranging journeys for information, by sending delegates, etc.

Proceedings at meetings will consist of lectures, exchanges of collected experiences, discussions of books, references to new data, specimen teaching, exhibitions of teaching appliances, etc.

3. MANAGEMENT.

The executive officers of the commission consist of the president and a vice-president, secretary, assistant secretary, and librarian.

Only teachers may be chosen as presidents and secretaries.

Members of the executive body are elected for one year; reelection is permissible.

AUXILIARY SCHOOL ASSOCIATION AT KÖNIGSBERG.

[According to Fr. Frenzel.]

§ 1. The purpose of the association is to cooperate with the auxiliary school in caring for the physical and mental development of weak-minded children, viz:

1. Of those who have left school.
2. Of those still compelled to go to school.
3. Of other mental defectives, i. e., those who are still very young.

To this is joined the further purpose of spreading information regarding the real significance and value of the auxiliary school and of combating the prejudices of the public against it.

§ 2. The care of boys and girls who have left the Königsberg Auxiliary School will, among other things, consist in:

- (a) The training of children for a practical calling in life. For this work competent and morally unobjectionable masters, overseers, and guardians must be secured.
- (b) The continuous supervision and education of the children.
- (c) The granting of assistance in cases of need, as well as protection against the dangers arising from their meager endowment, and against those of public life (injuries caused by negligence, acute mental disturbances, alcohol, prostitution, conflicts with the authorities).
- (d) The placing of children under proper care, either private or in some institution, according to the nature of the case.

§ 3. The care of children who are still of school age shall, among other things, consist in—

- (a) Placing them as soon as possible in the auxiliary school;
- (b) Providing better care for the pupils as an aid to the accomplishment of the school purposes, especially by the establishment of a home for children (day home with board) and by providing special care during vacations.

§ 4. To carry on this work helpers are appointed by the association, who are to watch over the pupils and instruct the persons in their environment (parents, guardians, former teachers, etc.).

§ 5. Any man or woman who is interested in this sphere of benevolent activity may become a member of the association. Societies are also accepted as members. Applications for admission are to be made to the president. Every member pays an optional fee (at least 2 marks) during the year.

Notice of withdrawal from the association must be presented in writing before the close of the year to the executive council.

Every member is asked to further the interests of the association as far as he can by spreading information regarding its purposes, and by accepting responsible positions and posts of honor in it.

§ 6. The executive council consists of sixteen members, men and women, including the president, vice-president, secretary, assistant secretary, treasurer, and eleven other members. The executive council conducts all the affairs of the association and holds monthly meetings to discuss the progress of its work.

The members of the executive council are chosen at the first general meeting of the year. If a member withdraws before the expiration of his term of office, some one else is elected to take his place.

§ 7. The association year begins January the first. Meetings are called by the executive council when occasion demands. The principal meeting of the year is held in January, when the secretary's and the treasurer's reports are given and the executive council elected. This annual meeting, the objects of which are stated in the call, requires no quorum. A majority vote will pass any resolution; to change or amend the constitution a two-thirds majority of the members present is required. A two-thirds majority vote of all the members of the association is necessary to disband the association. In case of the dissolution of the association, all its possessions are to be handed over to some institution for the care of mental defectives.

At Cologne, too, as well as at Frankfort on the Main and Brussels, the auxiliary school, assisted by associations, cares for the further development of its pupils who have been confirmed and have left the school. It is very important, also, that the auxiliary school teachers should carry on research work regarding the success of auxiliary school instruction, as is done at Leipzig. At the instigation of K. Richter (Leipzig) every six years questionnaires are sent out. These seek information regarding the ability to earn a livelihood, the conduct, and the desire for further education of former pupils who can still be found. Such work causes the teacher much trouble, and yet it furnishes a splendid test of the success of the school as a whole. The results of the Leipzig experiments are gratifying, and encourage us to continue the work along this line. We may expect that such research work will be successful in other cities, too. Of course the results of all efforts in the auxiliary school will be more

certain and greater when State and community, cooperating with private persons, labor in the interest of those mental defectives who have left the school.

Boys must be cared for till they reach the age when they must serve in the army. That such care is very necessary has been proved by H. Kielhorn, and he has also done much to bring it about. Much of the mistreatment of soldiers, which is always mentioned in the press and parliamentary speeches, comes about because the mental condition of the youths who enter the army is not considered. If when recruits were being examined the doctor would only take the time to glance over the "personal records" of the auxiliary school, many an evil report concerning the army could be stopped. And much "ballast," too, many a drag on the military training, would be done away with; indeed, the number of deserters and suicides would be greatly lessened, if the previous life of the recruits were known, on the basis of statements made by auxiliary school teachers. And if only during recruiting, at least the question, "What school have you attended?" were asked, then, if an auxiliary school were mentioned, a special examination would have to be made. To prevent the misuse of this simple method, the military authorities might demand lists of pupils of the auxiliary schools of any particular recruiting district. In all cases it would be wiser not to allow any former pupil of an auxiliary school to serve in the army, no matter how physically capable he may seem; and this from humanitarian as well as from technically military and patriotic considerations.

A special administration of justice is recommended for weak-minded, abnormal boys and girls who have left school. To be sure, while attending the auxiliary school, they should learn to distinguish more clearly right and wrong, good and evil; but a pupil will never leave the auxiliary school with firm principles of right in his mind; his social conscience will always be wavering. At least he will never be able to resist the manifold temptations of his surroundings as a mentally normal person could do. At times, too, physical conditions will obscure his weak sense of right, so that deeds will be committed which human society calls misdeeds, and punishes. The so-called "changed accountability" (*veränderte Zurechnungsfähigkeit*) must here be considered. When the layman, who criticises harshly and hastily, hears this newly-coined legal term, he speaks lightly of a ridiculous lowering of our standards of discipline. Indeed, in view of the increasing number of mental defectives among those to be punished, he sees the administration of justice in a precarious position, if punishment in a great number of cases is lessened as a result of individual consideration of the mental condition of the offenders. But criminal psychology is neither a philanthropic or scientific sport; the knowledge of psychopathology in its connection with misde-

meanors and crimes is nowadays rather a necessity, which can prevent the infliction of punishment from being dislodged from its position. Whoever has watched the développement of an auxiliary school pupil will know how easily guided he is, as long as those around him understand him, and further, as long as this or that nervous condition does not handicap him.

Further, the health educator knows how sensitive he may become, and fall into passions of the worst kind, if his short and disconnected trains of thought become confused on account of some cause lying entirely outside the sphere of his will. In such a case the slightly abnormal child will generally act without reflection; but sometimes he may, after mature but one-sided deliberation, do wrong, and then his "changed accountability" can scarcely be assumed. In both cases the judge must decide from a humanitarian point of view, i. e., he must consider the inner man in the offender, particularly if the offender has passed through the auxiliary school in his youth. To regard him as completely responsible, and to punish him as one would a mentally normal person, would be to chastise a cripple merely because he was born a cripple, and to deform him still further. Paragraph 51^a of the penal code of the German Empire gives the judge the right to take into consideration a mental condition—"unconsciousness" or "morbid excitement," by which free-will action is absolutely prevented. Not a word, however, is said of mental deficiency as a condition which also may hinder the free action of the will. The twenty-seventh conference of German jurists has recently tried to remedy this defect; and upon the advice of Professors Kahl and Leppman (Berlin), the following recommendations have been made to the judicial authorities by Professors Cramer (Göttingen), Kräpelin (Munich), and Kleinfeller (Kiel):

1. Anyone who, at the time of committing a criminal act, is in a diseased condition which is not merely temporary, and which has lessened his ability to see the culpability of his actions, or his power to resist temptation, is to be punished according to the law governing punishment for petty offenses.

2. In the case of young offenders, more extensive use is to be made of the principle recommended by the twenty-seventh conference of jurists, viz, that educative measures, under the direction of the state, be substituted for punishment.

3. Punishment may be postponed according to the general rule permitting it, and we recommend that this rule be applied as widely as possible.

4. Commitment is made to the usual penal institution, where the conditions which brought about mental deficiency are given special consideration.

^a Compare Bürgerliches Gesetzbuch f. d. Deutsche Reich, par. 827.

5. Mental defectives in the sense of paragraph 1 who do not belong in the usual penal institution are to be committed to a state reformatory, and youthful offenders are to be committed to educational institutions.

6. Mental defectives who are dangerous to society must be kept in suitable institutions until such time as they are considered fit to be discharged, even though their sentences have been fulfilled or remitted.

7. The discharge is only provisional and may be revoked during a time fixed by law.

8. The health of mental defectives who are not dangerous to society must be watched over by the State after their discharge or the remission of their sentence; they may be placed in families or private institutions or given over to specially appointed guardians. Legal limits should be set to the period of such supervision.

9. Special means are to be taken to determine the necessity and advisability of any protective measures to be used in connection with mental defectives, but this procedure is to be kept entirely distinct from that concerned with the deprivation of the right of independent action (on account of mental derangement or reckless expenditure).

In these recommendations a very important rôle is given to the physician in connection with penal sentences. It is desirable, however, that the advice of the auxiliary school teacher be taken as an expert when judgment is to be passed upon those who have formerly attended an auxiliary school. At least the previous life and development of the accused, as shown by the individual records kept by the auxiliary school, must be taken into consideration. Many milder sentences would then be given and further culpable deeds prevented by proper treatment. Perhaps help may come from auxiliary school and other societies in cities whose members can secure legal counsel when former auxiliary school pupils are accused in court. This counsel will always meet with obliging assistance among auxiliary school people.^a

XV.—THE TEACHERS AND THE PRINCIPAL OF THE AUXILIARY SCHOOL.

The rapid development of the auxiliary school system explains the fact that teachers and head masters have received no special training for their work. Up to the present this could not be thought of. The appointment officials were always satisfied if they could secure folk-

^a The "Hilfsschule," No. 3, publishes an account of the committee for the legal protection of mental defectives. This committee was appointed at the instance of the executive council of the German Auxiliary School Association.

school teachers who were willing to apply for the position. It was taken for granted that a teacher accepted the position on account of his interest in the cause, for the small remuneration given to auxiliary school teachers could scarcely be an inducement. It was thought that interest in the cause, first of all, was the only and best preparation for the work, but still they were anxious to secure the most competent and experienced teachers, especially successful teachers of the lower classes of the folk school. The teacher of these lower classes, therefore, who would give his undivided attention to his new work, seemed to be by far the most suitable person for the position.

Many times experience showed that this was the case. Yet many of the beginners were disappointed; they were neither satisfied with their work nor successful in it. For the auxiliary school, as well as for the teachers in question, it was then fortunate if withdrawal was still possible. In their places new teachers would then have to be chosen and with greater care than before. Next, the auxiliary school authorities were glad if they could secure teachers from among those who had taught in curative educational institutions, as asylums for idiots, institutes for the deaf and dumb, and the blind.

Unfortunately, as a rule but few applications were received from that quarter. Consequently dependence had to be placed almost entirely upon former folk-school teachers, and in fact only upon the younger ones of these. For if a folk-school teacher has for years been teaching his pupils as a mass, he has gradually become unfitted for the individual instruction required in the auxiliary school. It is too hard for him to accustom himself to new methods, and he finds no pleasure in the work. In many cases he is thoroughly convinced of the power of discipline and drill in the school. Now, both of these may be very necessary in a large folk-school class, but in the auxiliary school they are injurious rather than beneficial. The auxiliary school teacher must not be an unsympathetic disciplinarian. He must have his own feelings fully under his control. If he is irritable and if anger easily gains power over him, he had better turn his back upon the auxiliary school. In dealing with mental defectives, as well as with poorly endowed children, the teacher must always practice self-control. Any expression of impatience, as hasty and harsh words, would be quite useless and his work as an educator quite without effect. Whims and moods must also be suppressed by one undertaking this work. Therefore, a person who is physically sound should be chosen. A nervous, melancholy person would never be equal to the demands made by auxiliary school instruction, and the children would be deprived of all the freshness and brightness which school work should possess.

To be sure, experienced folk-school teachers can become models of self-control and able to spread sunshine and gladness about them;

probably, however, they will prefer to remain in their usual field of work rather than accustom themselves to a new one when well up in years. This adaptation to new situations is sooner to be expected of the newer members of the profession. Even when we were convinced that one of these members, who stood ready to serve the auxiliary school, was really interested in its welfare, and we knew his power of self-control, as also the cheerfulness of his disposition, and speedy adjustment to the new duties could be expected, even then we were not certain that the right choice had been made. Little by little people came to see that experimentation by a teacher is nowhere more injurious than among children who are abnormal and constantly in danger of injury by being led in this or that direction. Consequently all kinds of proposals were made, especially by auxiliary school teachers themselves, by which the folk-school teacher might be made competent to take up the work of the auxiliary school in such a way that he would without loss of time become a blessing to the school and a satisfaction to himself.

First, it was recommended that the new teacher be allowed to visit the classes of experienced auxiliary school teachers frequently. To begin with, the higher classes, then the intermediate, and finally the lower classes should be visited before he attempts to teach at all. This proposal deserves serious consideration. The visitor should be permitted to ask questions, to which instructive answers are to be given by the teacher in charge of the class. It is not less important that he should attend conferences of the auxiliary school instructors.

Secondly, candidates for positions in the auxiliary school are to be advised to acquaint themselves with the literature of the subject and to make themselves at home in all fields of knowledge and technical work which bear upon auxiliary school instruction. Above all, the following books are to be studied: Demoor, *Die anormalen Kinder und ihre erziehliche Behandlung in Haus und Schule*; Fuchs, *Schwach-sinnige Kinder, ihre sittliche und intellektuelle Rettung*; Strümpell, *Die pädagogische Pathologie oder die Lehre von den Fehlern der Kinder*; Heller, *Grundriss der Heilpädagogik*. He should also make himself acquainted with the reports of the meetings of the German Auxiliary School Association and of the conferences regarding auxiliary schools and schools for idiots, as well as with the *Zeitschrift für die Behandlung Schwachsinniger und Epileptischer*, and further, with the "*Kinderfehler*." In consequence of this knowledge of the literature, not only will he become desirous of familiarizing himself with the history and organization of the auxiliary school system, but also of occupying himself with social and scientific pedagogical questions and individual departments of the work. Further, the auxiliary school teacher must know the sociological efforts being made in our time; also school hygiene, how to cure difficulties of speech, child and

folk psychology, as well as the broad field which the physician includes under the term "etiology of psychosis."

Thirdly, the auxiliary school teacher is recommended to increase his knowledge by attendance upon suitable series of lectures. These lectures have hitherto been given rarely. In 1899 was established at Zurich the first course for teachers in special schools. As is seen from the reports published in the "*Kinderfehler*," this laudable undertaking reckoned more upon the attendance of teachers from the medico-pedagogical establishments than from the auxiliary schools. In 1904 an attempt was made at Jena to adapt these courses specially to the needs of auxiliary school teachers. The pedagogical department of the vacation schools which have been organized for many years presented lectures regarding defects of character in childhood and youth, child psychology, the auxiliary school system, difficulties of speech in childhood, the physiology of the brain, and demonstrations by reference to meagerly endowed and defective children.

These lectures will maintain their significance as a kind of introductory preparation so long as a fourth demand is not met by the state, which is that auxiliary school teachers be trained in specially constituted seminaries.

We can not demand that the state establish a number of training schools whose graduates shall be competent auxiliary school teachers. Neither can we expect the normal school student to decide before he completes his training whether he will teach in a folk or auxiliary school. That would be possible if all teachers' seminaries had a special course in auxiliary school pedagogy. In my opinion the highest educational authorities would only have to take another step in the same direction in which they are already working, and (to quote from a Prussian resolution of 1901 regarding the training of teachers) give the seminary students sound pedagogical training regarding the development of the spiritual life of the child in its normal course and its most important pathological conditions. Overcrowded as the pedagogical curriculum is to-day with material, it would seem that this thoroughness of training in these regards, which is so much to be desired, must remain as an unrealized hope. Specialists can not and should not be reared in the schools for the training of folk school teachers. However, greater interest may be aroused in the various branches of curative pedagogy; and as in recent years pupils have been allowed to visit now and again institutions for the deaf and dumb, the blind, or idiots, he might now also be permitted to see the workings of an auxiliary school. Then he might be given a short introduction to the history, organization, and literature of the auxiliary school system. It would not be a bad idea if there should be a division for mentally deficient children in the practice school; the seminary student would be able to learn a great deal

there. Of course the work in this department would be hard and not very pleasant for a beginner. On account of this the wish can not be realized.

Therefore an effort should be made in another direction. Let the state establish, in a university town, a center for the auxiliary school teachers of a whole district. Let auxiliary school teachers, well versed in theory and practice, be called to positions there in a model auxiliary school. These teachers, together with medical men, jurists, and political economists from the university, should hold lectures each year for such seminary graduates as have been chosen at its recommendation by the official authorities. A final examination, which would be considered equal to the examination for teachers in the intermediate schools or institutions of the deaf and dumb, would qualify the candidate to accept a position in the auxiliary school. Later it can be decided whether an examination for school principal is essential. At present such an examination is considered unnecessary. A folk school rector is still always chosen as principal of an auxiliary school, who then has to direct the affairs of a folk school along with those of an auxiliary school. This conception of the auxiliary school principal hitherto is not entirely false. The folk school rector who performs the duties connected with the auxiliary school with zeal and love may be of great service to it. Yet the more the before-mentioned desires regarding the preparation of auxiliary school teachers are fulfilled, the more must consideration be given to the auxiliary school having its own director. Of course he must be a teacher, not a physician, for even the medical questions, which are of the utmost importance, are to be considered from a pedagogical point of view. This will be seen again and again at teachers' meetings. At these conferences questions regarding organization, methods, care of the soul, and psychological problems, as well as discussions on literature, may compose the entire programme. In many cases the school physician must be present at such meetings. It will then be helpful to have model lessons, particularly when it is a question of change of method. Each year principals and teachers are to be given opportunity to attend meetings of associations and societies in the interests of the auxiliary school work.

In this section we have been speaking of male teachers and schoolmen; yet we do not wish to suggest that women should be excluded from auxiliary school work. Even though it would not be advisable to have only women to care for the education and instruction of mental defectives, as is often the case in other countries, yet we can not entirely dispense with the aid of women teachers. Strange to say, there are but few of these in German, and especially in Prussian auxiliary schools. For a long time their services in technical work

(hand work and gymnastics in girls' classes) have been desired; but so far as I know there are still very few auxiliary schools in the Empire which have any women teachers. And yet the auxiliary school could only gain by it if the motherly influence of women teachers were added to the fatherly influence of the men. To be sure, it will be harder for a woman to handle a mixed class than for a man, but deep interest in the welfare of the weakly endowed ones will probably be able to overcome even this.

XVI.—THE PEDAGOGICAL SIGNIFICANCE OF THE AUXILIARY SCHOOL.

The auxiliary school question may truly be said to be many-sided; it interests the philanthropist as well as the political economist and the jurist; it also concerns pastors, doctors, and military officers. Naturally the educator is the one chiefly interested; but before all the practical expert, who never gives up on account of difficulties, finds his profit here.

A position in the auxiliary school is by no means a sinecure; but the expert in this school is lead by just the difficult duties of his office to make far-reaching theoretical researches. He discovers the various methods of psychological observation, and comes to find that a proper valuation of abnormal children may aid in the development of normal pupils. So by thoughtful study he may become a pathfinder in the psycho-genetic field. His discoveries render service to the whole field of pedagogy in one way or another.

This splendid outlook is not impossible, because the pedagogy of the auxiliary school is not yet fully developed, and the auxiliary school teacher for the present is still able to work without being narrowly restricted by any laws. Also the whole field of pedagogy is yet to-day undergoing further organization. Just think of the complete change which has been made in the instruction of the first school year, in the consideration of coeducation, etc.! Therefore experiments can be made in the auxiliary school; it can serve as a pedagogical seminary in the broadest sense of the term for all schools. We do not need to repeat that the auxiliary school is not to be a place for pedagogical vivisection, and the auxiliary school pupil is not to be made a mere subject for such experimentation, but it can very well be made the university for all schools, and especially for the folk schools, by the efforts of the theoretically and practically qualified workers therein.



APPENDIX.

[The following additional notes were prepared by Dr. L. R. Klemm, of the Bureau of Education.]

The idea of establishing separate classes in large schools, or special schools in the more populous cities, for weak-minded and other backward children, is not new in America. The first school of this kind was established by Superintendent A. J. Rickoff in Cleveland, Ohio, in 1875. He adopted the idea from the Germans, who had begun to agitate this question as early as 1860. Many American educational thinkers and school officials have, it is true, for years advocated semiannual promotions in school, so as to enable pupils who can not be promoted to pick up the lost stitches of their course in four or five months, instead of losing an entire year. Dr. W. T. Harris adopted this system in St. Louis as early as 1875, and enlarged upon the subject in conventions and in the press. In some other cities this arrangement and others designed for similar purposes have been successfully carried into effect, and many a child who has lost a grade through disease, truancy, or mental weakness has been saved from being put back an entire year. Still, this does not protect the majority of pupils from being retarded by the progress of the intellectual misfits.

The Germans seem to be imbued with the idea that saving a mentally weak child for a life of usefulness will prevent a heavy drain upon the town poor fund later on, hence that the outlay for special schools will result in a double saving—a saving for the individual as well as for the community.

The Mannheim system of grading the pupils of the public schools has been explained at some length on pages 43-47 of this work. As there stated, the schools of Mannheim are organized with three parallel courses, namely: A regular course, which is followed by over 90 per cent of the pupils; another to which pupils are transferred who for any reason need temporary aid; and a special course for weak-minded pupils. The diagram on page 122 illustrates this organization.

The school superintendent of Mannheim, Dr. A. Sickinger, argues that the organization of any city school system should be adapted to the natural capacities of the children. In other words, as children should be clothed according to their size and fed according to their appetites, they should be mentally nourished and exercised according to their mental capacities and strength. He points to the well-known fact that many children at some point of their eight years' course fail to be promoted, while some fail repeatedly. Such children reach the age for leaving school before completing the regular prescribed course, and hence remain educational torsos or cripples, as they never get the chance of rounding out their education. They fail to acquire the habit of intensive and conscientious work, the most beneficial fruit of rational school training; they are left without confidence in their own powers, without willingness to work or joy in regular occupation.

Superintendent Sickinger suggests three ways for saving these elements of the city's school population: (1) Decreasing the amount of matter to be learned by all the pupils, for it is not the extent or breadth, but the depth and definiteness

of the knowledge gained which decide the value of school education. This method would, however, place all the schools on a lower plane of usefulness, for it would effectually check the aspirations of gifted children to rise above mediocrity. (2) Decreasing the number of pupils assigned to each teacher, so

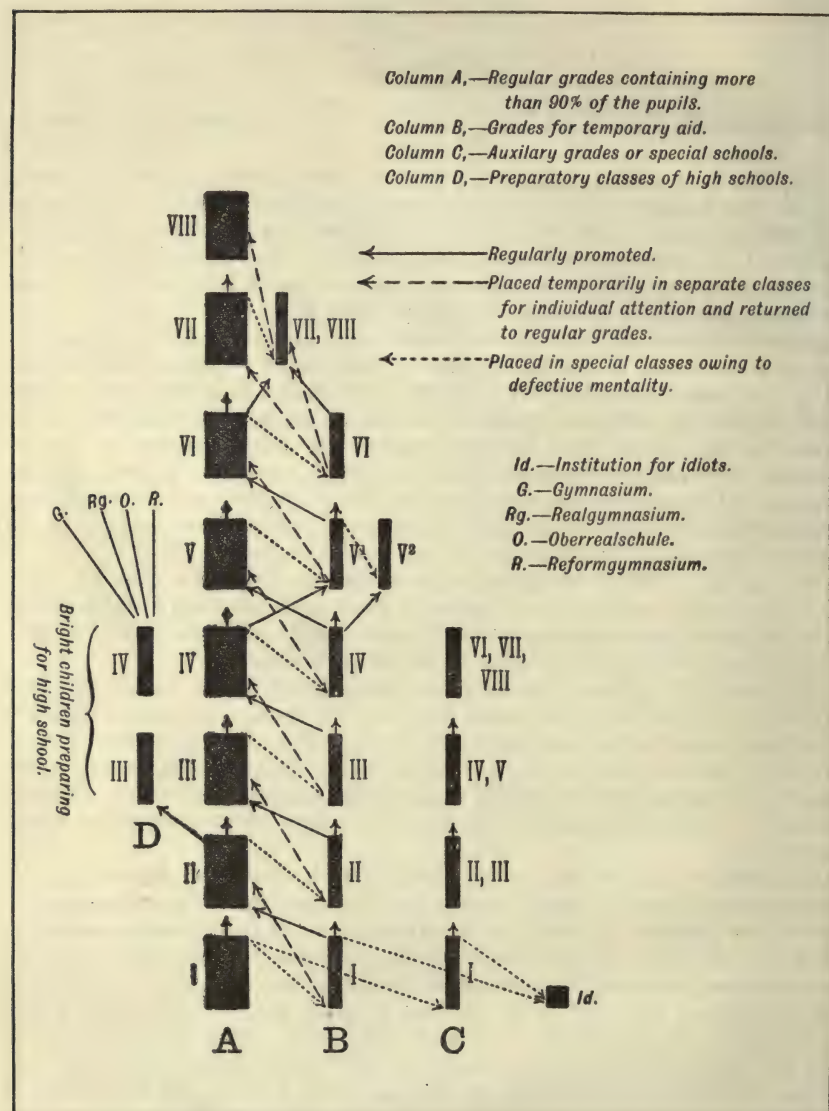


DIAGRAM illustrating the organization of the elementary school system of Mannheim, Germany. Reprinted, with slight alterations, from Julius Moses's *Sonderklassensystem der Mannheimer Volksschule* (Mannheim, 1904).

as to facilitate more individual treatment. This would necessitate a much greater outlay in maintaining the schools. (3) Sifting out the pupils unable to keep pace with the normally endowed and giving them special courses, one course being adapted to physically and intellectually weak children, another to

those who by reason of absence or other unavoidable cause have fallen behind their classes, though they be intelligent enough to keep pace with the majority if given temporary aid. Doctor Sickinger's chief object in the latter case is to avoid the repetition of a whole year's studies, because that would occasion not only a great loss of time, but also a loss of self-respect, or else (if the attempt is made to go on) a dissipation of youthful strength in keeping pace, which strength might be better utilized after a few weeks of special attention.

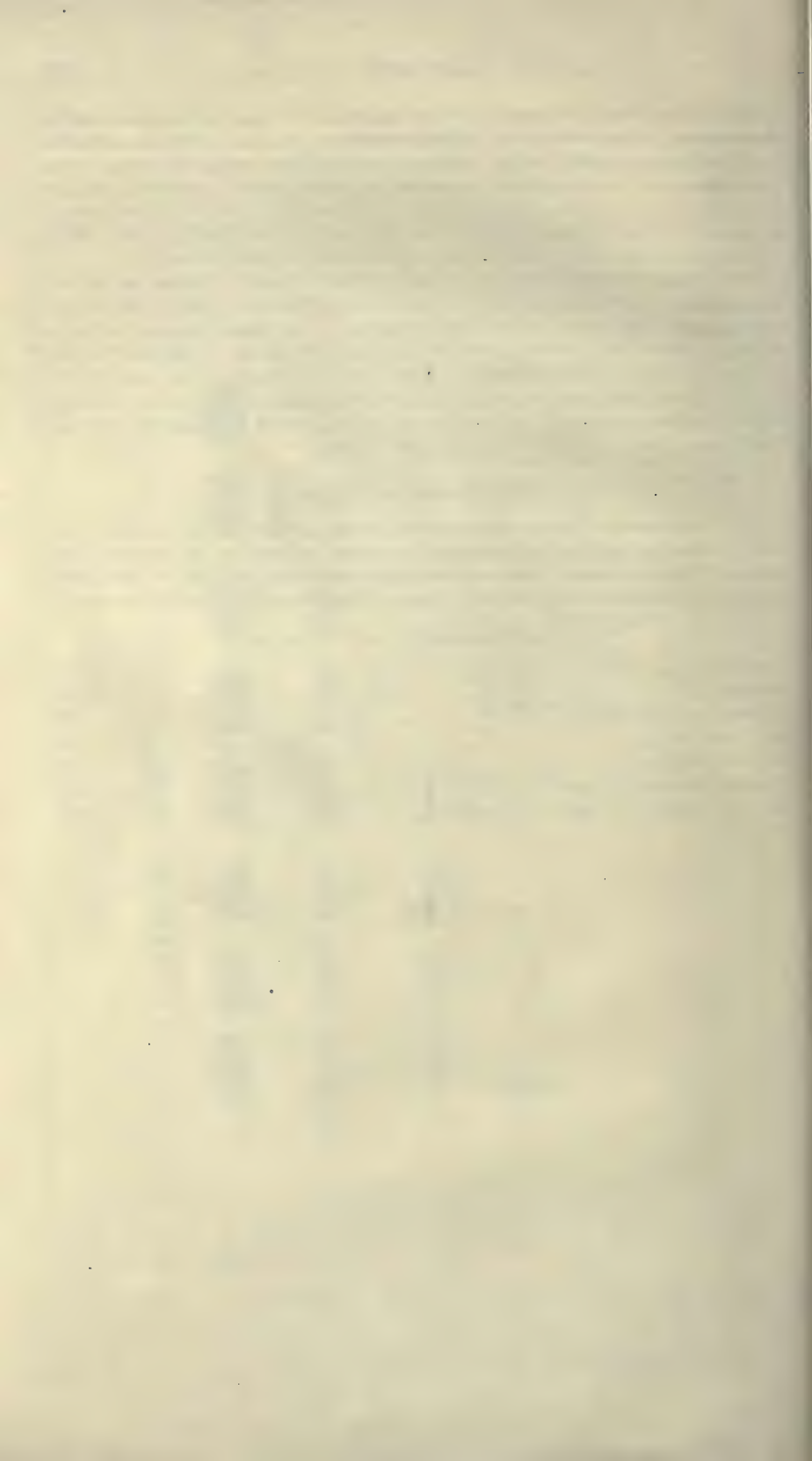
The accompanying diagram is so easily understood that it requires no further explanation. It will suffice here to call attention to the hygienic advantages accruing from this plan of school organization. The special classes (columns B and C) offer children with defective eyesight, hearing, etc., a treatment which few, if any, regular schools could possibly give; they also act as a sort of hospital for poorly fed, anemic, and nervous children, many of whom can not keep their attention fixed upon one subject for a long period of time, but who get tired after a few minutes of concentrated attention.

SUPPLEMENTARY STATISTICS.

The "Zentralblatt für die gesamte Unterrichtsverwaltung in Preussen," the official organ of the Prussian minister of public instruction, gives in its September-October number of 1907 comprehensive statistics (for 1907) of auxiliary schools in the different provinces of Prussia. These are summarized as follows:

Auxiliary schools of Prussia.

Schools	204
Pupils	12, 734
Classes and teachers	690
Men teachers	544
Women teachers	146
Average number of pupils to a school	62. 4
Average number of pupils to a teacher	18. 5



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NOTE.—The brief bibliographies prefixed to the several chapters in the original work are here brought together in order to facilitate reference. The order of arrangement of the original has been retained, so that the numbers and subjects of the different divisions correspond with those of the chapters of the text.

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^a A much more comprehensive and systematically classified bibliography of auxiliary schools (Führer durch die Literatur des Hilfsschulwesens), compiled by Doctor Maennel, is in course of publication in monthly parts in *Die Kinderfehler* (Langensalza, H. Beyer & Söhne). The publication began with the October number of 1906, and in September, 1907, had covered 19 of the 24 proposed classes or divisions of the subject.

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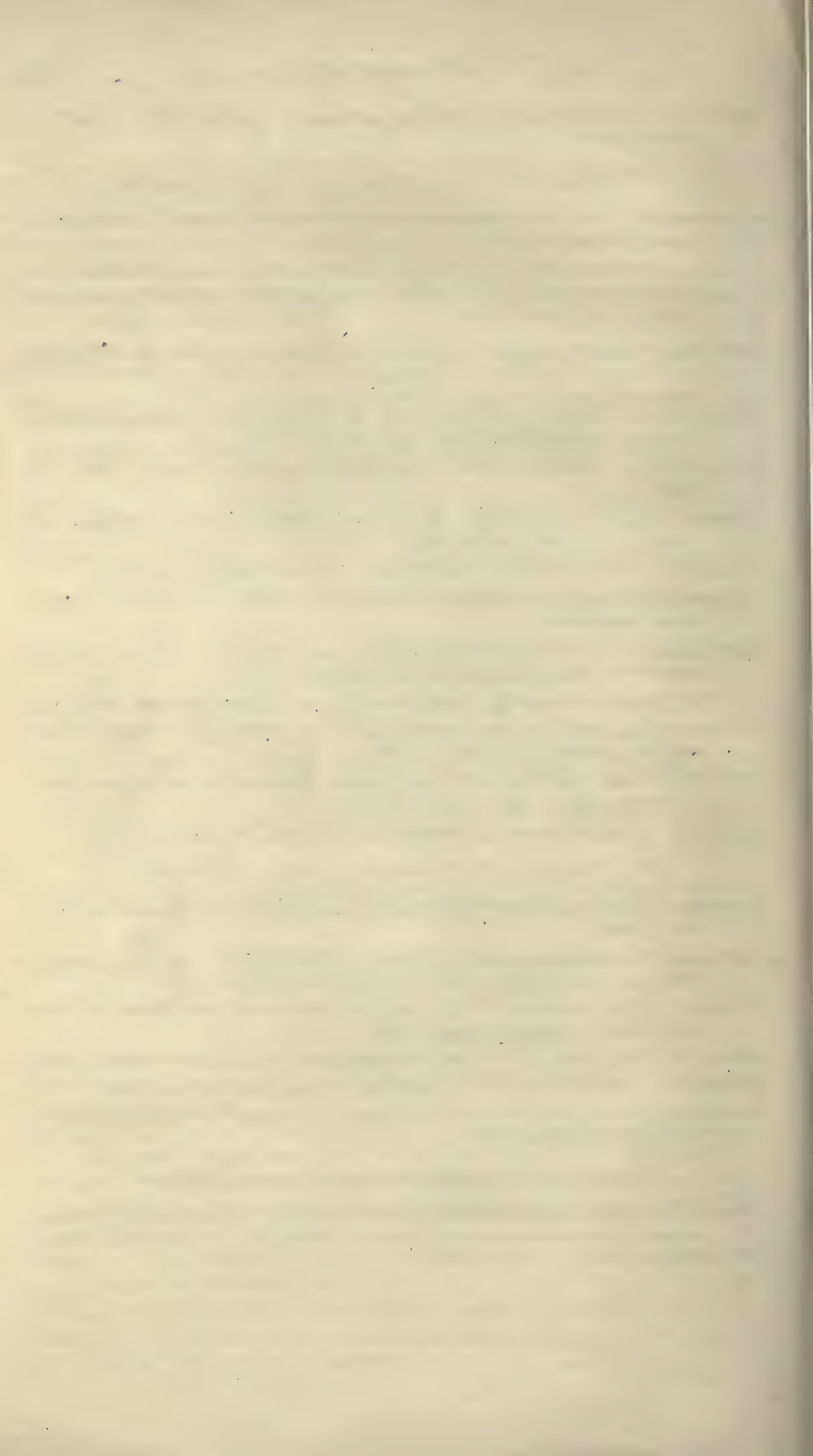
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[The following abbreviations are used in this index: a. s., auxiliary school; a. ss., auxiliary schools; assn., association.]

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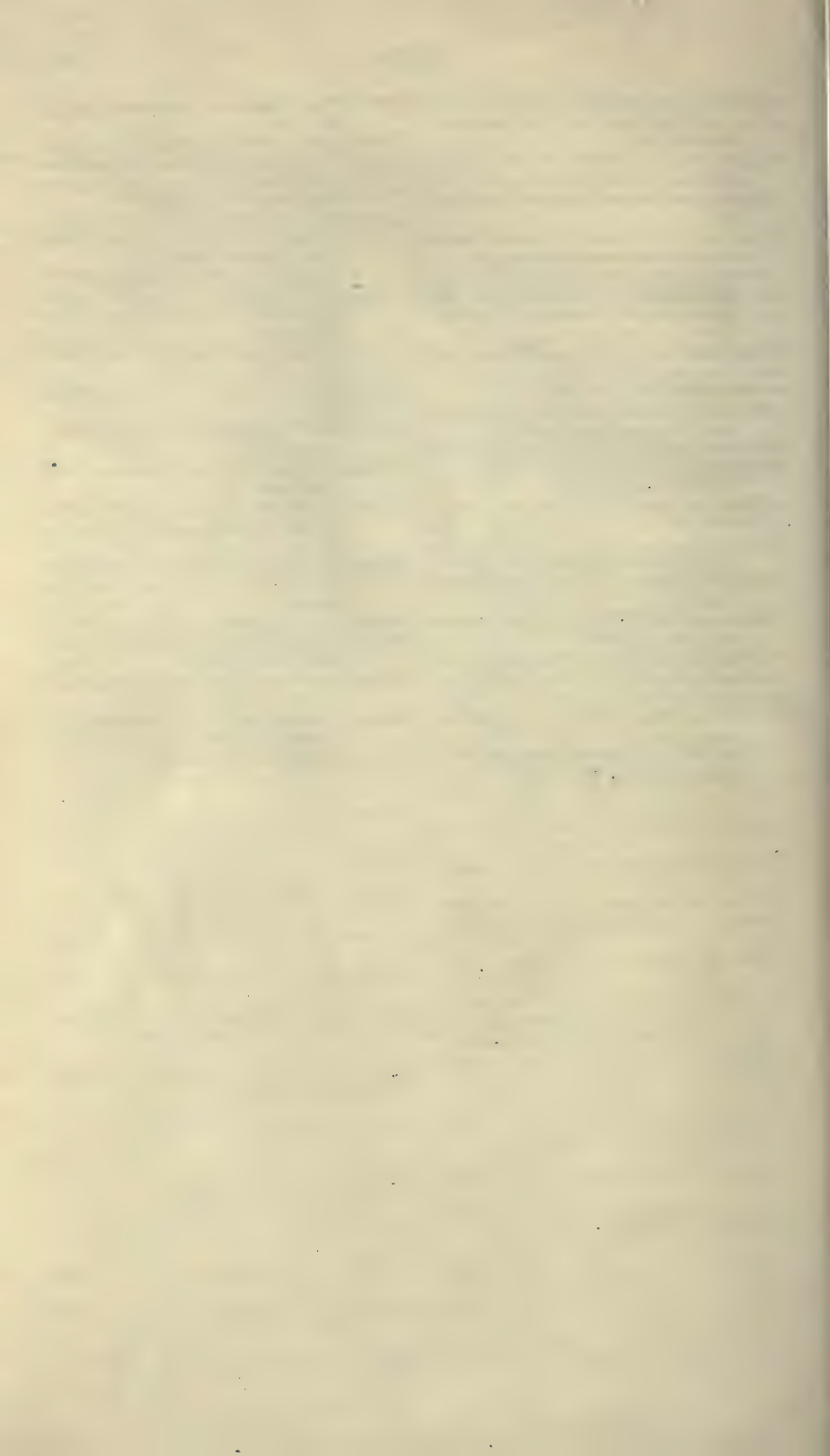
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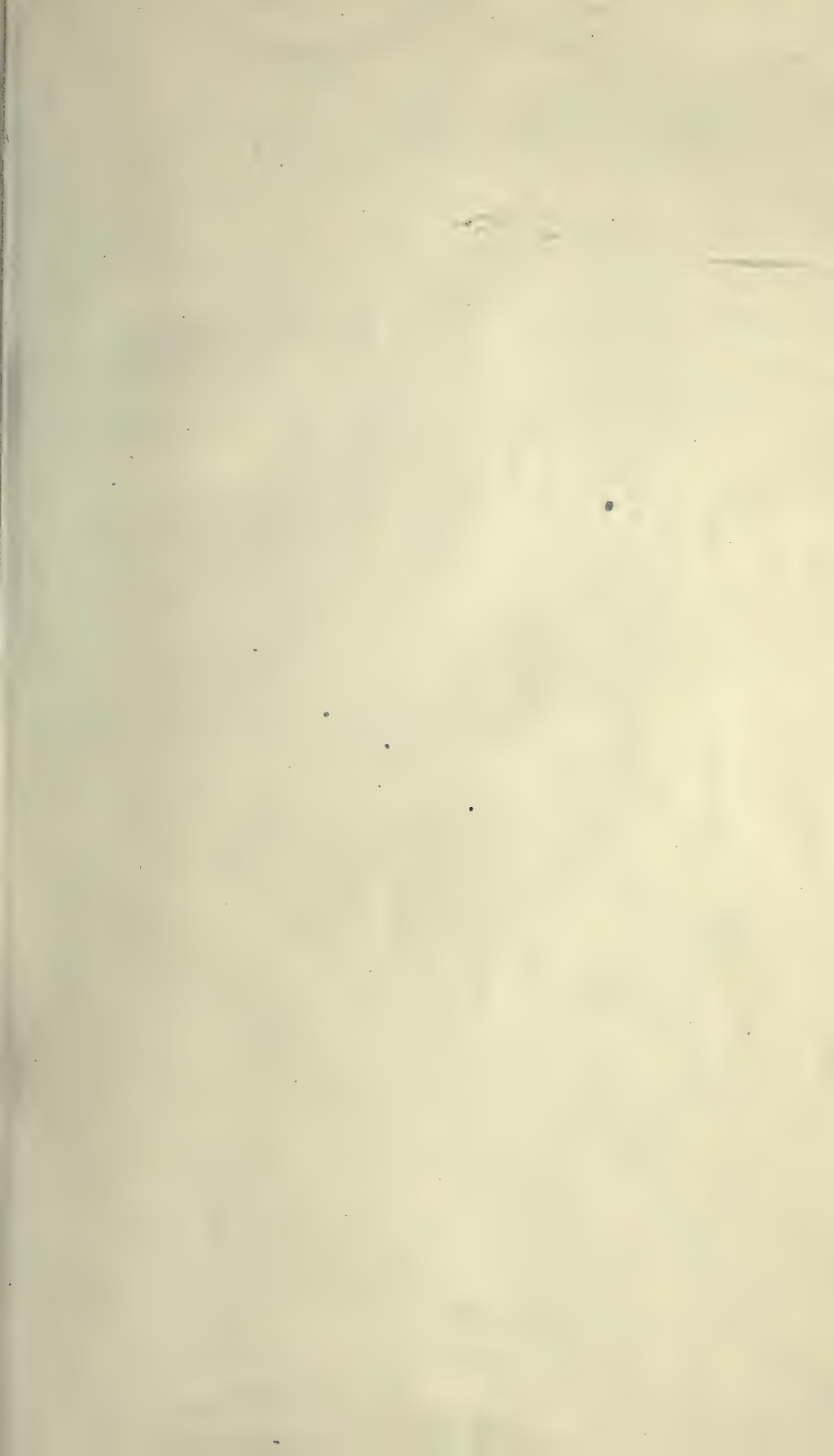
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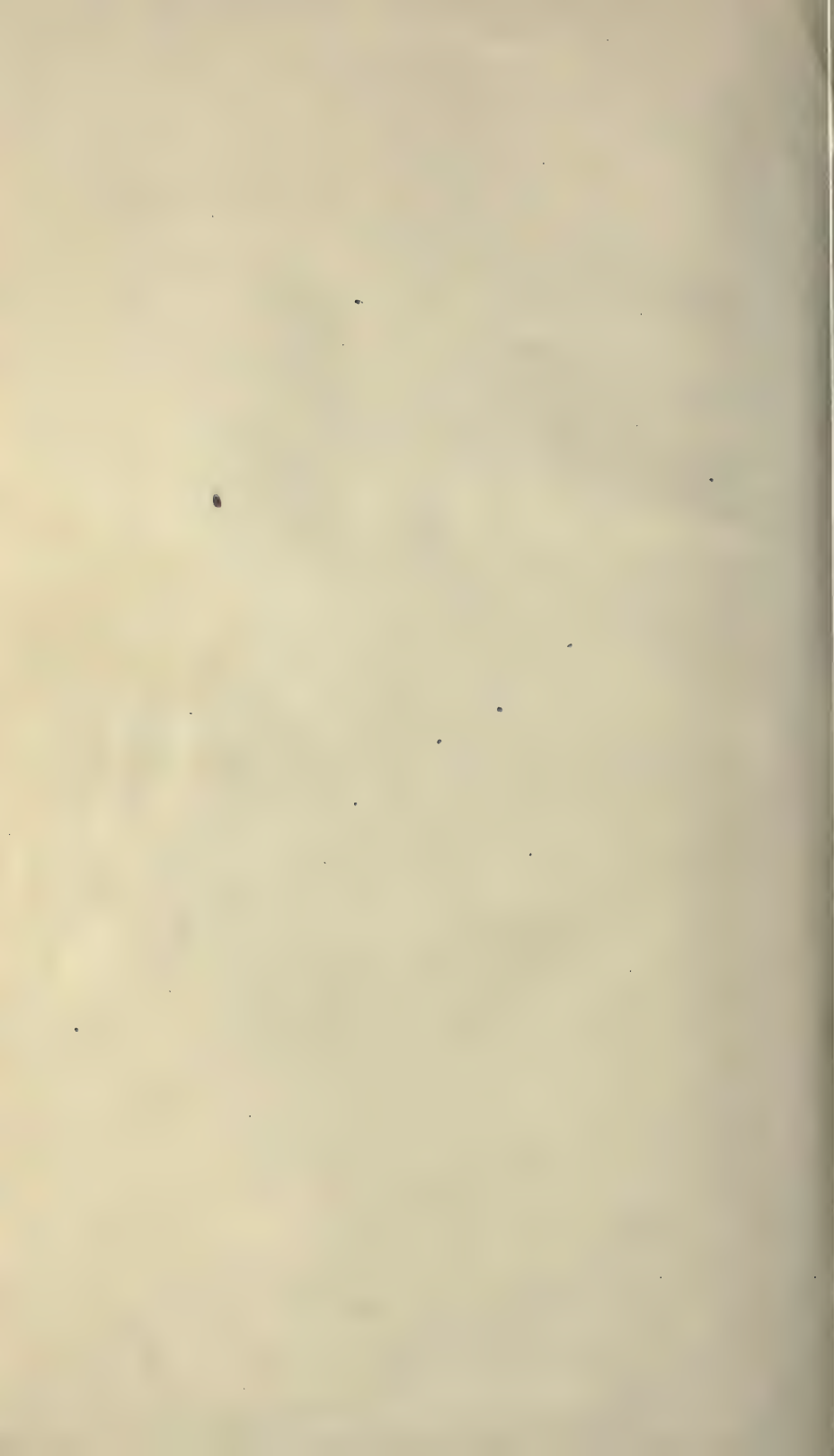
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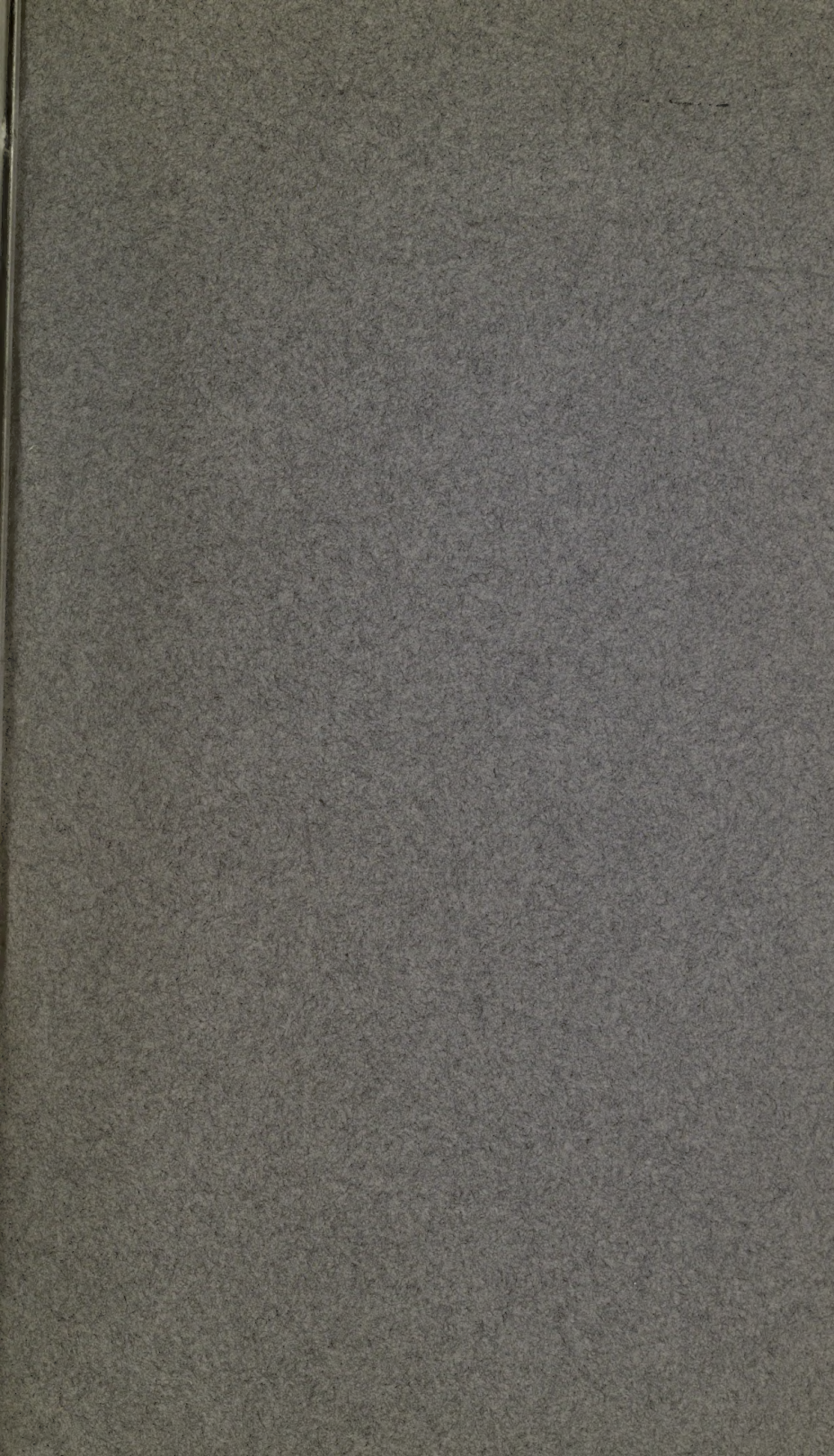
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